

T H E
 New Universal Geographical
G R A M M A R :
 WHEREIN THE
 SITUATION AND EXTENT
 OF THE SEVERAL
C O U N T R I E S
 Are laid down according to the most Exact
GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS,
 AND THE
H I S T O R Y
 OF ALL THE DIFFERENT
KINGDOMS of the WORLD,

Is interspersed in such a Manner,

As to render the Study of Geography both Useful
 and Entertaining.

UNDER THESE THREE HEADS:

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>I. A Compendious System of Astronomy.</p> <p>II. The Geographical Definitions, Problems, and General Divisions of the Earth, necessary to be understood as an Introduction to this Grammar.</p> | <p>III. A particular description of the Countries contained in each quarter of the World; their Cities, chief Towns, respective forms of Government, Forces, Revenues, Taxes, and History.</p> |
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T O G E T H E R W I T H

An Account of the Air, Soil, Produce, Traffic, Curiosities, Arms, Religion,
 Language, Universities, Bishoprics, Manners, Customs, Habits, and
 Coins, in use in the several Kingdoms and States treated of.

And a Chronological Table of remarkable events from the creation to the present time.

The SECOND EDITION, with large Additions.

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The whole being an Improvement and Continuation of
MR SALMON'S GRAMMAR.

Brought down to the present time
 By **J. T Y T L E R.**

E D I N B U R G H :

PRINTED FOR J. SPOTTLISWOOD, BOOKSELLER.

M.DCC.LXXXII.

TO THE
P U B L I C.

AS the design of every Publication of this kind is to give a complete account of the different countries described, so far at least as it is possible to do from the discoveries of travellers and navigators; it is hoped, that in the perusal of the following sheets, the Reader in this view will not be disappointed.

Every publication of the kind that hath hitherto appeared has been consulted upon this occasion: And as no performance on any subject is either so absolutely perfect as to be entirely without defect, or so totally despicable as that nothing valuable can be extracted from it; by collecting what was of the greatest importance, and rejecting those parts which seemed more trifling, from other publications of the same nature, it hath been studied to make the present Grammar the most complete, as well for Instruction as Entertainment, of any hitherto extant; and in every respect to deserve the title of, **THE UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHICAL GRAMMAR**.

It would be impertinent to expatiate in the praise of a performance the true merit of which every Reader must determine for himself. It is hoped, however, that the candid Reader will excuse the observation of any inaccuracy in Mr Salmon, who, though he in the Preface to his Grammar, declared that he was more particular in his description of the British Isles than any other part of the world, yet in his account of Scotland he is unaccountably deficient: His deficiencies in this respect have been supplied; and it hath also been studied to render the Historical part complete to the present time, especially with regard to America: and as the war with the Colonies is, perhaps, an event of greater importance to this country than any recorded in history, it is hoped, that an accurate account of it will render this Work truly valuable to the Public in general.

That nothing might be wanting towards the rendering of this Grammar as complete as possible, a description is added of the Islands in the South-Sea discovered by the late Voyagers, also a new Chronological Table of remarkable events, inventions, and discoveries.

The PUBLISHER.

This GRAMMAR contains One hundred and sixty pages, or Ten Sheets, more than any Geographical Grammar ever printed in this kingdom.

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THE

P R E F A C E.

TO create in the British youth a laudable ambition to excel in such pursuits as most conduce to their own honour and happiness, and the prosperity of their native country, was one principal motive to this undertaking.

Curiosity is natural to the soul of man. We are inquisitive, and wonderfully solicitous to be informed of every thing, and every man's concerns, even to a fault; and shall we be less inquisitive, less solicitous, in the pursuit of useful knowledge, and the most important truths?

Can there be a rational creature unconcerned to know the state of the world about him, and the manners, customs, and history, of the several nations his cotemporaries? And does it not add infinitely to the satisfaction of every man that reads, to know the time when, and the place where, great and memorable actions were performed?

But the labour and difficulty that is usually apprehended in making these inquiries, frightens young gentlemen from attempting to inform themselves in these particulars; though without a general knowledge of them, they are neither capable of serving their country, nor qualified for conversation.

This tract, therefore, presents the youth of Great Britain with the world in miniature; which, it is presumed, will be found to contain the most exact chronology, and the most perfect system of geography now extant, with such an epitome of *Modern*

den History, or the present state of all nations, as will render the work agreeable to every taste.

It is a very just observation. That a writer must not expect many readers, who does not accommodate himself to the taste of those gentlemen to whom he addresses his work.

And we need not be at a loss to know what is agreeable to most people, when we find every gentleman, and almost every lady, inquiring into the history of the day, and reading the most *trifling occurrences*, which nothing but the novelty can recommend.

These they are not afraid to venture upon, when contained in a handsome volume; while a folio of any dimensions, replenished with the most interesting truths, would lye neglected, under an apprehension that it was impossible to go through it, or to retain in their memories what it contained, if they should attempt it.

This work, therefore, has the charms of brevity, as well as novelty, to engage a general attention. An hour's reading will give a gentleman a tolerable idea of the state of any country he is pleased to make the subject of his inquiries. Here the senator and politician may view the constitution, forces, and revenues, of the respective kingdoms and states; the divine may observe the religion and superstition of the respective people; the merchant, and marine officer, the produce, traffic, periodical winds and seasons, in the various climates of the globe.

In those that have not read larger accounts, it may create an appetite to search further into these interesting subjects, and in those who have been conversant in larger works, it may revive the memory of what they have read, and prevent that confusion in chronology and geography which is too apt to attend the reading many histories of different countries.

And

And as the state of our own country concerns us more than that of any other, I have been more particular in the description of the British isles than of any other part of the world. Foreigners justly expect from us a better account of our own country than of distant nations.

But notwithstanding I have been more particular in considering the state of the British isles than that of some other countries, I would not be thought to want a due regard for all mankind. As I am a citizen of the world, I look upon all men as my brethren; and have long endeavoured to set them right in their notions of one another.

I am extremely concerned to see almost every people representing the inhabitants of distant nations as barbarians, and treating them as such.

For my part, I have met with people as polite, ingenious, and humane, whom we have been taught to look upon as cannibals, as ever I conversed with in Europe; and, from my own experience, am convinced, that human nature is every where the same; allowances being made for unavoidable prejudices, occasioned by custom, education, and savage principles, instilled into many in their infancy by ignorant, superstitious, or designing men. And, as I have observed on other occasions, nothing has contributed more to render the world barbarous, than their having been taught from their cradles, that every nation almost, but their own, are barbarians. They first imagine the people of distant nations to be monsters of cruelty and barbarity; and then prepare to invade and extirpate them, exercising greater cruelties than ever such nations were charged with; which was exactly the case of the Spaniards, and the natives of America.

But to proceed in giving some further account of the present undertaking: I have not only endeavoured

deavoured to improve the modern geography, rectified the chronology, and shewn the present state, revolutions, and changes of government, that have happened in the respective nations described, but caused a set of new maps to be engraved, that may agree with the work, and corrected them with my own hand; for since the days of my friend Moll the geographer, we have had nothing but copies of foreign maps, by engravers unskilled in geography, who have copied them with all their errors. In these maps the degrees of Eastern and Western Longitude will be found on the top of each map, and the hours and minutes every place lyes East or West of London, (the first meridian,) at the bottom of the map; shewing, at one view, the number of degrees, and the difference, in point of time, between any two places on the globe: For instance, any place which is situated one degree East of another, will appear to have the sun four minutes of time before it; and a place situated one degree West of another, will appear to have the sun four minutes after it. Again, a place situated 15 degrees East of London, (as Naples,) will appear to have the sun one complete hour before those at London; and a place situated 15 degrees West of them, (as the island of Madeira,) will appear to have the sun an hour after they have it at London; which is much easier apprehended by viewing a map of this kind than by any definition or explanation whatever.

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SHORT INTRODUCTION

GEOGRAPHY and ASTRONOMY.

GEOGRAPHY is that science which treats of the different divisions of the globe into land and water, and shews how to lay down these accurately on maps or globes.—But tho', strictly speaking, this comprehends the whole of the science, a system of geography is always supposed to contain something of the natural history of the different countries, the manners of the inhabitants, and even a sketch of their ecclesiastical and political history.

The science of geography was very much unknown to the ancients. They had no good methods of finding either the longitude or latitude of places; and the imperfect state of navigation rendered them so ignorant of the greatest part of the world itself, that very little could be expected from them.—The conquests of Alexander the Great proved very beneficial to the science, because by that means many different nations were brought to a knowledge of each other, who were totally unconnected before. It was a custom also with every general to make a survey, and a kind of map of the country through which he passed. This custom was kept up by the Romans, whose wide extended empire might reasonably have been thought to give considerable opportunities for geographical observations. Yet, notwithstanding all these assistances, the first system of geography published by Ptolemy about the middle of the second century was exceedingly erroneous; the countries not only being distorted in their shape which at that time were least known, but even those which lay round the mediterranean sea, and which were better known than any others.

All this inaccuracy proceeded from the want of proper instruments for making celestial observations. The inequalities on the surface of the earth effectually prevent us from measuring any considerable portion of it exactly. The instrument called the *Surveying-wheel* will indeed tell us exactly the length of any road over which it passes; but

but as it takes in even the most minute inequalities, it is evident, that the distance between two places taken in this way must be considerably greater than that measured in a straight line, without taking in these inequalities; for when large portions of the earth's surface are to be measured, the inequalities of it must be considered as nothing, as indeed they bear but a very small proportion to its bulk. By trigonometry indeed this may be avoided, but the labour of trigonometrical mensurations would be endless, and after all inaccurate; because these are also attended with small errors, and these errors being repeated almost infinitely, on account of the very small portion of the earth which could be measured at a time, would make an exceedingly great error at last. Besides, though this method could be practised at land, yet when we had occasion to measure the vast ocean, where neither surveying-wheel nor trigonometry could be applied, we must be entirely at a loss. For these reasons, it is necessary to have some fixed marks distinct from the earth altogether, by observing which we can find our distance from the different parts of the earth. These marks are the celestial bodies, and them only. The sun, though at some seasons he appears higher and at others lower in the sky, yet hath certain limits fixed to his journey Northward and Southward. In proportion as we go South the sun seems to advance Northward; and thus by taking his height at mid-day, with a quadrant or other proper instrument, and comparing it with the mid-day heights of the sun in other places, we can easily come at the true distances of those places Northward or Southward from each other. This is what is called finding the *Latitude* of a place, and is commonly found by observing the sun. The *Longitude*, East and West distance of places from one another is found by the stars. For example, if we observe that on a certain day of the year at a certain hour a star is in the meridian, or at its greatest height at Edinburgh, and on the same day it arrives at the same height half an hour sooner at Amsterdam, we can then easily find how far Amsterdam lies East from Edinburgh. For this purpose indeed some calculations would be necessary; and we must have the measure of the earth's circumference, but as it would require a larger share of geometry and mathematical knowledge to understand them than perhaps many of our readers may be masters of, we shall not enter farther into the subject, but proceed to

S E C T. I.

A COMPENDIUM of ASTRONOMY.

THOUGH in some of the more early ages of the world mankind had very foolish and confused notions, both of the figure of the earth, and the situation and motions of the heavenly bodies; some imagining the earth to be an immense plane, supported like a scaffolding, by pillars; some, that it was like a cylinder, or drum, &c.; and all, that it was immoveably fixed in one place; yet these absurdities seem not to have been held by the first fathers of the astronomical and geographical sciences.

The most ancient theory we have any account of is that taught in Greece by Pythagoras, who flourished about 550 years before Christ. He maintained that the earth was shaped like a globe, and moved round the sun like other planets; which opinion, as he had travelled into Egypt and Chaldea, it is probable he received in some of these places.

The seeming contradiction to our senses, however, which this opinion carried along with it, was probably the cause of its being soon forgot; and accordingly it lay in oblivion till the year 1530, when it was revived and published to the world by Copernicus, a native of Poland, who found many more enemies than friends to his new doctrine. In the 17th century it was embraced and improved by the laborious Kepler; and notwithstanding the anathemas of the church of Rome, who pronounced it a mortal heresy to say that the earth was round, it continued to gain ground, till at last it was demonstrated and brought to its highest perfection by the researches of our immortal Newton.

As this opinion, commonly called the *Newtonian* System, is now so generally received, that scarce any person pretends to doubt of, or dispute on the subject, we shall content ourselves with giving a general view of it, leaving the knowledge of other astronomical systems to be gathered from books which treat professedly of that science.

According to the *Newtonian* astronomy, the Sun which enlightens and warms us is an immense globe of fire, no less than 890,000 English miles in diameter. With respect to us, and all the planets, he may be said to remain immoveably and for ever fixed in one place; for the Earth and other five bodies, called Planets, continually move round him in orbits somewhat elliptical, or of an oval figure. The magnitudes, revolutions, and distances of these bodies from the Sun, according to the latest and best observations, are as follows:

Next the Sun, but at the distance of no less than 36,461,848 miles, revolves the planet Mercury, in diameter about 3000 miles, finishing his revolution in 87 days, 23 hours. By reason of the vicinity of this planet to the Sun, he is seldom seen by our naked eye, but appears very bright and white, when visible: the swiftness with which he moves in his orbit is greater than that of any of the other planets, being no less than 1828 English miles every minute.

Next to Mercury, Venus revolves in 224 days 17 hours, at the distance of 68,891,486 miles from the Sun, with a velocity of about 1338 miles in a minute. This planet is of a bright white colour, and makes the most beautiful appearance of any star in the heavens, known by the name of the Morning and Evening Star. Her diameter is 9330 miles.

At the distance of 95,173,000 miles from the Sun, the Earth performs its revolution in one year, consisting of 365 days, 5 hours and 49 minutes, at the rate of 1137 miles in a minute. Its diameter is computed at 7970 miles.

Mars comes next in order, at the distance of 145,014,128 miles from the Sun, and performs his revolution in one year, 321 days, 17 hours, moving with a velocity of about 926 miles in a minute. His diameter is about 5400 miles, and his colour a fiery red.

Jupiter, the largest of all the planets, revolves next to Mars, at the distance of 494,990,976 miles from the Sun. His diameter is no less than 94,000 miles, and by reason of the immense circuit he takes, though moving at the rate of 484 miles every minute, his course round the Sun is not finished in less than 11 years, 314 days, 8 hours. The colour of this planet is likewise red, though not so much so as Mars; but though Jupiter is much larger than Venus, he does not make near such a beautiful appearance, by reason of his great distance from us.

An immense way beyond Jupiter, Saturn, the outermost of all the planets, revolves, at the distance of 907,916,130 miles from the Sun, at the rate of 368 miles every minute; but by reason of his great distance from the Sun, his revolution is not completed in less than 29 years, 167 days, and 6 hours. His diameter is 78,000 miles, and he appears of a white colour.

These are all that are called Primary Planets in the language of astronomers; but besides these, there are others, called *Moons*, or *Secondary Planets*, which revolve round the primary ones, accompanying them in their course round the Sun. It is supposed by some astronomers, that none of the primary planets are without their secondaries, but nothing can be affirmed with certainty concerning more than three of them, *viz.* the Earth, Jupiter, and Saturn.

Our Moon bears a greater proportion to the Earth than any one of the other secondary planets bears to its primary; being 2180 miles in diameter, and revolves at the distance of 240,000 miles from the Earth. Jupiter is attended by four moons, and Saturn by five; by which they frequently eclipse one another; and by the eclipses of Jupiter's moons the longitude of particular places on the Earth is most frequently determined. Saturn's moons would answer this purpose as well, was it not, that by reason of his great distance from us, they are not so easily perceivable as those of Jupiter.

Concerning these two planets there are two singularities observed by astronomers, about which various conjectures are formed, namely, that Jupiter, when viewed through a telescope, appears encompassed with dark streaks, called his *Belts*, which continually shift their situation with regard to one another; sometimes appearing to run across his surface in parallel lines, sometimes inclined to one another in various angles; so that it hath been said, that more changes happen daily on the surface of Jupiter, than would happen to this Earth, though the ocean and land were to change places every day. The particular regarding Saturn is, that he is encompassed with a luminous ring entirely separated from his body; but for these things we must refer our readers to books of astronomy.

Besides

Besides the motion of the primary planets round the sun, they have another, round their own *axis*, as it is called. This motion may be understood, by supposing a top to receive a smart scourge, so as to make it move round in a circle, while it keeps spinning all the while on its point, or one extremity of its axis. The circular motion would properly enough represent that of the earth, or any other planet round the sun; while the motion round its own axis would represent what is called the *diurnal rotation* of the earth: this diurnal rotation is performed by our Earth in 24 hours; by which means, all the parts of its surface are alternately exposed to, and hid from, the light of the sun, and thus the vicissitudes of day and night constantly happen. The diurnal rotation of the other planets, and of the Sun himself, is determined by dark spots visible on their surface through a good telescope; but they by no means keep the same periods of revolution with our Earth. The Sun revolves in 25 days 6 hours; Venus in 29 days, 12 hours, 44 minutes; Mars in 24 hours, 40 minutes; and Jupiter, notwithstanding his immense bulk, in 9 hours, 56 minutes. Mercury and Saturn, the one, by reason of his nearness to the sun, and the other by his immense distance from us, appear altogether luminous, without any dark spots on their surface, so that the times of their diurnal revolution must remain unknown. The Moon revolves on her axis in the same time that she performs her revolution round the earth, *viz.* 29 days, 12 hours, 44 minutes; by which means only one half of her surface can ever be visible to us, as she keeps one side constantly towards the earth.

As the vicissitudes of day and night are caused by the diurnal rotation of the Earth on its axis, so the various seasons, and different lengths of the day and night are produced by what is called the inclination of the Earth's axis to the plane of the ecliptic. This we may have a pretty just idea of, by imagining a top scourged round in a circle, and spinning on its axis, not in a perpendicular position, but inclined to one side: the annual orbit of the Earth, or the circle in which it moves round the Sun, is called the Ecliptic. We may suppose the heavens intersected or divided into two great hemispheres; by this circle we may also suppose the Earth to move round this plane formed by the circular area of the under hemisphere, once every year, and turning round its own axis, not in a perpendicular position with respect to the plane, but inclined to it in such a manner that its axis might make an angle with the plane, of 23 deg. 29 min. When we have done this, we have as just a notion of the inclination of the Earth's axis as it is possible for us to have.

By reason of the axis of the Earth keeping always in the same oblique position, the poles, or points round which the Earth turns, are alternately turned towards the Sun, once every year. When the North pole is brought towards the Sun, it is constantly enlightened, and there is perpetual sun-shine for several months; the places also adjacent to the pole have long days and short nights, the South pole being all the while immersed in darkness, and those places which lye near it have short days and long nights. When the Earth is exactly in the middle of its course, between the two extremities of its orbit, and neither pole being more enlightened than the other, the days

and nights are of an equal length through the whole earth, as they would always have been, had the axis of the Earth been perpendicular to the ecliptic.

The axis of Mars and Jupiter are perpendicular to the plane of their orbits; so that we may suppose the seasons, as well as the length of the days and nights, to continue constantly the same. The axis of Venus is inclined 75 degrees, that of the Sun 8 degrees, and of the Moon 2 degrees, 10 minutes.

The Ecliptic is conceived to be divided into 12 equal parts, called *Signs*; and each sign into 30 equal parts, called *Degrees*; whereby the Ecliptic is divided into 12 times 30, or 360 degrees.

It should be observed, that mathematicians suppose the circumference of every circle to be divided into 360 equal parts, called *Degrees*; each degree to be divided into 60 equal parts, called *Minutes*; and each minute into 60 equal parts, called *Seconds*; and so on to *Thirds*, *Fourths*, &c. And by these degrees, minutes, and other parts, they measure the motions, distances, and magnitudes of the heavenly bodies.

The Ecliptic is the middle line of that space in the heavens called the *Zodiac*; whereof the breadth is about 16 degrees; that is, about 8 degrees on each side of the Ecliptic; within this breadth of the zodiac are contained the heliocentric circles, or orbits, of all the planets; consequently the motions of the planets are all confined within the limits of the zodiac; and the planets themselves will always be found in one or more of the zodiacal constellations, of which the following are the names and marks:

Aries.	Taurus.	Gemini.	Cancer.	Leo.	Virgo.
♈	♉	♊	♋	♌	♍
Libra.	Scorpio.	Sagittarius.	Capricornus.	Aquarius.	Pisces.
♎	♏	♐	♑	♒	♓

The plane of the ecliptic divides the heavens into two equal portions, one called the *Northern Half*, and the other the *Southern Half*; and as the heavens appear to the view to be like a concave globe, and called the *Celestial Sphere*, whereon the stars appear to be fixed, so the Northern Half is called the *Northern Hemisphere*, and the Southern Half the *Southern Hemisphere*.

Those two points in the heavens which are equally distant from every part of the ecliptic, are called the *Poles of the Ecliptic*; that in the Northern Hemisphere is called the *North Pole of the Ecliptic*; and that in the Southern Hemisphere is called the *South Pole of the Ecliptic*.

It should be known, that every circle which divides the sphere

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into two equal parts is called a *Great Circle*; and those two points in the heavens which are equally distant from all parts of the circumference of any great circle, are called the poles of that great circle: so that the distance between a great circle and its pole is 90 degrees. Also, that all the circles which can be described round any pole, between it and its great circle, are called *Small Circles*, or *Lesser Circles*, of the sphere. These circles are parallel to one another, and to the great circle; and are gradually less and less as they are farther from the great circle, or approach the pole; where they are finally diminished to a point.

Astronomers compare the inclinations of the orbits of the planets with the ecliptic; for they are above the plane of the Earth's orbit in one half of their revolution, and below that plane in the other half: now a planet in moving from above the Earth's orbit to below it, must cross the ecliptic, and at that time it is in the plane of the ecliptic; and this must happen to the planet twice in every periodical revolution, at the interval of half a revolution from one another.

The points where the orbits of the planets cross the ecliptic are called the *Nodes*. A straight line drawn across the plane of the ecliptic, joining the two nodes, is called the *Line of the Nodes*, which in every planet passes through the Sun; but the nodes of the different planets are in different points of the ecliptic.

A spectator in the sun observing the motion of any planet, will remark two circumstances; the first, that the same planet will not appear of the same size in every part of its orbit; secondly, it will move quicker in some parts of the orbit than it does in other parts.

The alteration in size must arise from an alteration in distance; and the planet must be farthest from the sun when it appears least, and nearest to the sun when it appears greatest: consequently the sun is not placed in the centre of the orbit; and observations shew that the orbits of the planets are somewhat longer one way than another; that is, they are of an (oval or) elliptical form, as already observed, with the sun placed at a little distance from the middle, in a point called the *Focus*: and this distance is called the *Eccentricity*.

The point of the orbit where the planet is farthest from the sun is called the *Aphelion*, or upper *Apfis*; and the point where nearest is called the *Perihelion*, or lower *Apfis*.

When the planet is in the midway of its course between Aphelion and Perihelion, it is said to be at its *mean distance*.

The eccentricity added to the mean distance gives the *Aphelion distance*; and the eccentricity subtracted from the mean distance gives the *Perihelion distance*: the line drawn through the sun from Aphelion to Perihelion is called the line of the *Apfides*.

When the planet is in Aphelion, it moves slowest; in Perihelion, quickest; its motion is increasing from Aphelion to Perihelion, and decreasing from Perihelion to Aphelion.

Although the sun is in the plane of each of the planets' orbits,
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and those orbits are ellipses of different sizes; it must be observed, that the eccentricities of the orbits are different from one another; and consequently the middle points of their orbits do not all fall in the same place; but the sun is in the focus of all the orbits of the primary planets.

MOONS, OR SECONDARY PLANETS.

A Secondary Planet, or Moon, revolves round its primary planet, which it respects as the centre of its course, in a direction also from right to left in the solar system, and is with a primary planet carried round the sun.

The orbit of a moon is also an ellipsis, having its primary planet in a focus: the plane of the orbit is inclined to the plane of the primary planet, and cuts in two opposite points, called *Nodes*; the line of the nodes passing through the primary planet. Consequently when the moon passes through the nodes, she is in the plane of the primary planet.

In each revolution of a moon round its primary, it must be once between the planet and the sun, and so nearer to the sun; and once beyond the planet from the sun, and so farther from the sun; these situations of a moon, in respect to its planet and the sun, are called *Conjunctions*. That within the planet's orbit is called the *Inferior Conjunction*, and that without the planet's orbit is called the *Superior Conjunction* of the moon.

OF ECLIPSES.

At the time of either conjunction, if the Moon should then be in or near one of the nodes of her orbit, an eclipse may happen; that is, the light of the sun may be hid either from the planet, or from the moon: If the moon should be between the sun and planet, there may happen an eclipse of the sun; that is, the sun's light may for some time be hindered from coming to some parts of the planet: and if the planet should be between the sun and the moon, there may be an eclipse of the moon; that is, the sun's light may for some time be prevented from falling on the moon: both of these cases shew, that the moon shines by no other light besides what it receives from the sun; and, like a looking-glass, reflecting that light upon the planet, seems as if it was of itself a luminous body.

The planets and their moons being opaque or dark bodies, they must always cast a shadow behind them from the light of the sun; and the body being in motion, the shadow must be also in motion; and this shadow, or a part thereof falling on a planet, all the space on the planet along which the shadow moves will be deprived of the sun's rays while the shadow remains there: these are circumstances that are confirmed at every visible eclipse which happens between the Sun, the Earth, and the Moon; and it is natural to conclude the like of the other planets; that every one whose shadow will reach another will occasion an eclipse. Now observations demon-

strate, that the shadow of no primary planet reaches another; for both Mercury and Venus, which move between the Sun and Earth, have been observed to pass over the face of the Sun, like a round black spot: consequently the sun is immensely larger than either of those planets; and their shadows must taper in a conical form from these planets to a point, at a considerable distance short of the earth's orbit. Also the shadow of the Earth ends in a point long before it reaches the planet Mars, as he is never obscured by the Earth, at a conjunction even when Mars is passing through a node: and the like is to be understood of the other planets.

That the Earth and its Moon are globular bodies is evident from the observations made on eclipses; for the obscured or darkened part is always bounded by a circular curve. Now that body whose shadow is terminated by a circle, must itself be also terminated by a circle; and in eclipses, which are visible sometimes to one part only of the earth, sometimes to other parts, the obscured portion of the sun or moon is always bounded by a circular curve: consequently, whatsoever part of the Earth or its Moon is turned towards the Sun, the shadows are always of a coniform figure; therefore the bodies which project those figures must be globular.

NEW AND FULL MOONS.

When the Moon is in her inferior conjunction, or in a position nearest to the sun, her enlightened part, being on that side next the sun, is turned quite away from the earth, and she cannot then be seen from the superior planet; but this can happen only for two or three days together; for as the moon is in constant motion from West to East, she will soon get past this conjunction, called the *New Moon*, and begin to shew a small part of her enlightened surface, and every day more and more; appearing first like a crescent, then as half a moon, at which time she is said to be in one of her quadratures; and so on, shewing more and more of her enlightened face, until she comes to her superior conjunction, when she shews her whole face, and is then called *Full Moon*: afterwards the enlightened part decreases every day; when it becomes half a moon, she is, in her other quadrature; from thence her face diminishes to a crescent, and so on till her illumined face disappears to become new moon again.

These different appearances of the moon are called her *Phases*; and the time she takes to exhibit all of them is called her *Synodical Revolution*, and takes up near a month: so that during a year, or the time of one revolution of the earth in its orbit round the sun, the moon will have made somewhat more than 12 revolutions round the earth.

OF THE COMETS AND FIXED STARS.

Hitherto we have only considered such bodies as may be said to have some connection with us, by moving round our sun, and receiving light and heat from him in the same manner that our earth does. The Six Planets, with their Secondaries, and the Sun round which they move, are called the *Solar System*; but, though these are

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all the bodies that appear permanently to belong to this system, there are others which appear and disappear occasionally; these are called *Comets*, and are thought by astronomers to be planets like the others, only that they move in orbits prodigiously eccentric, and consequently are a very long time in performing their revolutions.

The fixed stars are distinguished by the naked eye from the planets, by being less bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the stars, which the planets never do. This arises from their being so extremely small, that the interposition of the least body, of which there are many constantly floating in the air, deprives us of the sight of them; when the interposed body changes its place, we again see the star, and this succession being perpetual, occasions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed stars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their situation, with regard to each other; as the planets, from what we have already said, must evidently be always changing theirs. The stars which are nearest to us seem largest, and are therefore called of the first magnitude. Those of the second magnitude appear less, being at a greater distance; and so proceeding on to the sixth magnitude, which include all the fixed stars which are visible without a telescope. As to their number, though in a clear Winter's night without moonshine they seem to be innumerable, which is owing to their strong sparkling, and our looking at them in a confused manner, yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been done by the ancients, into signs and constellations, the number that can be seen at a time by the bare eye is not above a thousand. Since the introduction of telescopes indeed, the number of the fixed stars has been justly considered as immense; because the greater perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars always appear to us.

The distances of the fixed stars from the sun are so great that they exceed all calculation, and in consequence of this, it is impossible that they can receive from him so strong a light as they seem to have; nor any brightness sufficient to make them visible to us: from whence astronomers conclude, that they are all suns of the same nature with ours, and have planets in like manner moving round them: so that the universe, or whole of God's material creation, is looked upon to consist of a great number of solar systems resembling ours, each of the planets of which are supposed to be filled with living inhabitants of different species; it appearing absurd to them to think that God should create so many vast bodies to no purpose at all. It must be observed, however, that the best telescopes can discover none of the supposed planets of the fixed stars, nor is there any proof of the opinion, except the analogical reasoning just now mentioned.

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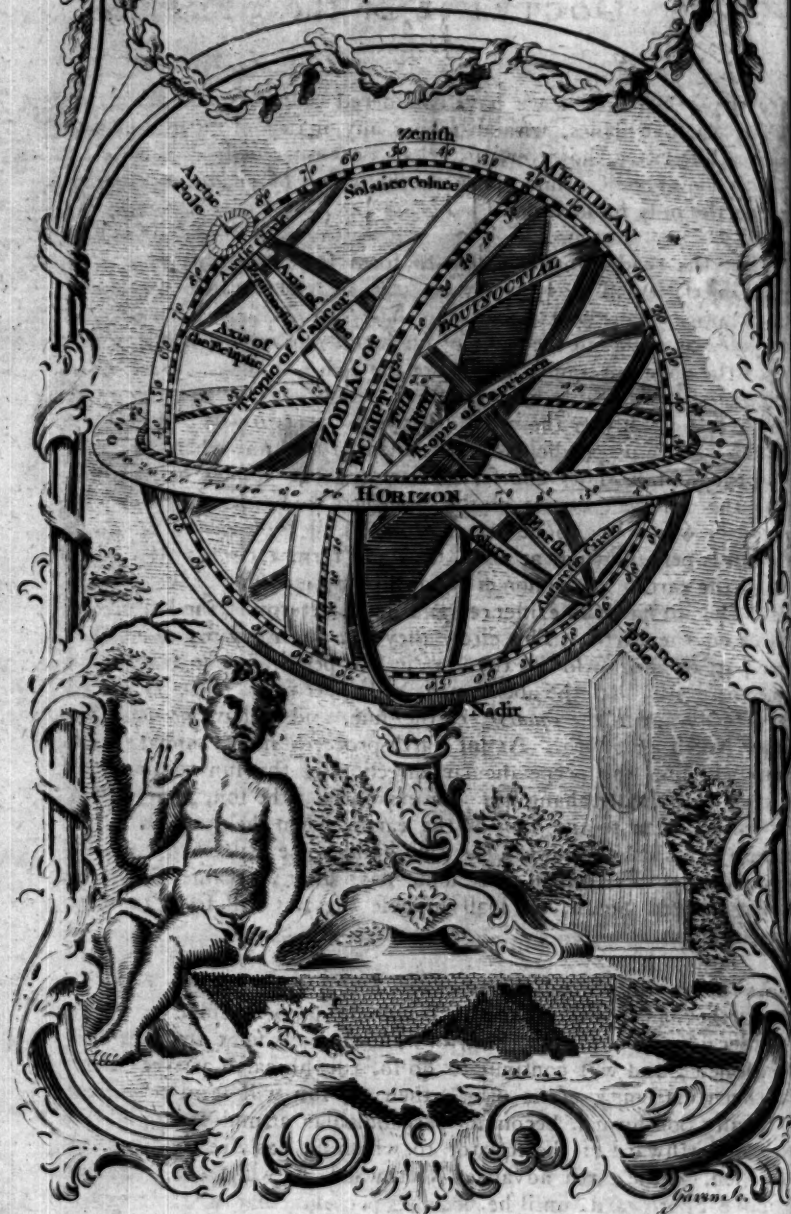
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The Artificial Sphere.



S E C T . II.

Of the DOCTRINE of the SPHERE.

I N the former section we have considered only the *true* motions of the celestial bodies, without taking any notice of their *apparent* ones. The latter, however, are what we must chiefly consider; as having the greatest connection with the subject of geography, being indeed the only foundation of it.

That the reader may be able to form some tolerable notion of this subject, it will be necessary to keep in remembrance what was taken notice of in the last section, concerning the annual turning of the poles to and from the sun; as upon this motion of the Earth depends the apparent annual motion of the Sun round it. If this is attended to, it will easily be understood, that those parts of the earth which lye directly in the middle between the two poles, must have the sun exactly perpendicular above them at the time when the earth is in the middle of its course, between the two apsidæ of its orbit. Was the apparent course of the sun then to be delineated on the earth, or was a line to be drawn through all those places to which the sun is perpendicular at noon, it would form a circle going quite round the earth. Astronomers and geographers suppose such a circle as this to have an existence, and by it determine the latitude of places on the earth. This circle they call the *Equator*; and whatever part of the world has the sun directly perpendicular to it at the time the earth is in the above-mentioned part of its orbit, is said to be directly under the *equator*, or the line, and to have no latitude, either North or South. As the earth proceeds in its annual course round the sun, the perpendicular direction of the sun towards the earth is perpetually changing. For example; if the sun, at mid-day, is perpendicular to any spot of the earth, when the earth is in the middle of its orbit, between the two apsidæ, he will not be exactly perpendicular above that place some days after; because the earth having moved South, we shall suppose the sun will seem to have moved North.

As the earth proceeds in its course Southward, the sun seems to get farther and farther North; becoming perpendicular to places considerably distant from those to which he was so at the time first mentioned; and will continue to do so, till the earth arrives at the Southern extremity of its orbit: then the sun will seem to return gradually Southward, becoming perpendicular at mid-day to all the places Northward of the equator to which he has already been so; and then, as the earth advances Northward, he will seem gradually to move Southward, until he becomes perpendicular to places considerably South of the equator. His apparent motion Southward
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in this manner, continues as long as the earth moves towards the Northern apsis of its orbit; and at that time the inhabitants that live near the North pole of the earth see the sun very low in the South and have their Winter; which is precisely the case with the Southern inhabitants when the earth is at the Southern apsis.

Was a line to be drawn through all those parts of the world to which the sun is directly perpendicular, once or twice through the year, it would form a circle quite round the earth, cutting the equator at an angle of 23 1-half degrees. This circle is likewise delineated on the terrestrial globes, and called the *Ecliptic*, as being an exact representation of the sun's visible course in the heavens. Circles drawn through those points of the ecliptic farthest distant from the equator mark out the boundaries of the Sun's motion Southward or Northward, and are called *Tropics* of Cancer and Capricorn; that of Cancer being the boundary of the Sun's course Northward, and Capricorn of his journey Southward.

The polar circles are supposed to be formed by the poles of the ecliptic, or the motion of two points 90 degrees distant from the plane of that circle. They are represented on the terrestrial globe by circles drawn at 23 1-half degrees from either pole. The Northern is called the *Arctic*, because the North pole is near the constellation of the bear; the Southern the *Antarctic*, because opposite to the former. And these are the four lesser circles.

Besides these ten circles now described, which are always drawn on the globe, there are several others, which are only supposed to be drawn on it. These will be explained as they become necessary, lest the reader should be disgusted with too many definitions at the same time, without seeing the purpose for which they serve.

The points where the equator, or equinoctial line and ecliptic cut one another, are called the *Equinoctial Points*; and a circle drawn through these points and the poles of the world is called the *Equinoctial Colure*; as one drawn through the points where the ecliptic and tropics touch one another is called the *Solstitial Colure*; and circles drawn through the poles of the world, and all parts of it, are called *Meridians*, because they shew what places of the earth have mid-day at the same time. Though these last are innumerable, they are only marked on the globes at every 15 degrees distance.

THE HORIZON.

A spectator standing on the surface of the earth can see only that half of the heavens which seem to be above him, the other half being hid by the earth beneath him: now if the apparent plane, or flat, which he stands on, was conceived to be extended till it met the heavens, it would there be bounded, apparently, by a great circle called the *Horizon*, which divides the visible from the invisible hemisphere.

That point of the visible hemisphere in the heavens, directly over the head of the spectator, is called the *Zenith*; and the point of the invisible hemisphere, diametrically opposite, is called the *Nadir*; so that the zenith and nadir are the poles of the horizon, and are each 90 degrees distant from it.

Great circles passing through the zenith and nadir cut the horizon perpendicularly, and are called *Azimuth Circles*, or *Vertical Circles*; and may be conceived to pass through any point in the heavens: on these vertical circles are reckoned the altitudes of the heavenly objects; that is, the number of degrees the object is above the horizon, counted on a vertical circle passing through the object: also on these vertical circles are reckoned the *zenith distances* of the sun or stars; that is, how many degrees the object is below the zenith, or is distant from the zenith: and on these azimuth circles is also reckoned the depression of an object below the horizon.

Circles conceived to be parallel to the horizon, between it and the pole, or zenith, are called *Parallels of Altitude*; every part of any one of these circles having the same altitude, or the same zenith distance.

Every point on the surface of the earth (or of any planet) has its own horizon, zenith and nadir; and consequently, while a person is travelling, he is constantly changing his horizon; and at every moment of motion comes under a new zenith.

The horizon is, by mariners, supposed to be divided into 32 equal parts, which are called *Rhumbs*, or *Points of the Compass*; through these points vertical circles are supposed to pass; that circle which goes through the North and South poles of the world, or points of the horizon, is the same with the meridian; and that which cuts the meridian perpendicularly, and passes through the East and West points of the horizon, is called the *Prime Vertical*. The East, West, North, and South points of the compass are called *Cardinal Points*.

The horizon is one of the most considerable circles noted by astronomers; for to this circle, which is the only one that really presents itself to our senses, many of the celestial motions are referred; such as the rising and setting of the heavenly bodies; and thereby, with regard to the sun, the horizon is the termination of day and night; for when the sun begins to appear at one side of the horizon, the day begins; and when he disappears towards the opposite side of the horizon, the day ends, and the night begins: also the heavenly objects, when they begin to appear at the horizon, are said to be rising; and when they begin to disappear at the horizon, are said to be setting.

The earth, by its diurnal rotation from West to East, carries the horizon of any particular place along with it; so that the rising of the sun and stars on the Eastern side, and their progressive increase of altitude till they come on the meridian, and their decrease of altitude afterwards till they set on the Western side, seem to a spectator on the earth as if himself was at rest in the centre of his horizon, and the heavens were rolling round him on the axis of the world,

from East to West. This apparent motion of the celestial sphere, or (as it is called by some) of the *Primum Mobile*, is what has been generally received as the real motion of the heavens: but was it so, the stars near the equinoctial must move at the rate of about five millions of miles in a minute of time; which is a motion so vastly rapid; as to sufficiently convince the absurdity of such opinion: however, 'tis usual, even for astronomers, to speak of the diurnal motion of the sun and stars, because the phenomena and the calculations relating to them are just the same, whether the earth or the heavens be supposed to have the diurnal rotation.

S E C T. III.

The DOCTRINE of the GLOBE.

BY the doctrine of the globe is meant the representation of the different places and countries on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe, or ball. Though in speaking of the earth, along with the other planets, it was sufficient to consider it as a spherical or globular body, yet it has been discovered that this is not its true figure; and that the earth, though nearly a sphere, or ball, is not perfectly so. This matter occasioned great dispute between the philosophers of the last age, among whom Sir Isaac Newton, and Cassini, a French astronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Isaac demonstrated, from mechanical principles, that the earth was an oblate sphere, or that it was flatted at the poles, or North and South points, and juttet out towards the equator; so that a line drawn through the centre of the earth, and passing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same centre, and passing through the East and West points. The French philosopher asserted quite the contrary: but the matter was put to a trial by the French king in 1736, who sent out a company of philosophers towards the North pole, and likewise towards the equator, in order to measure a degree, on the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle in these different parts; and from their report the opinion of Sir Isaac Newton was confirmed beyond dispute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been considered as more flat towards the poles than towards the equator. The reason of this figure may be easily understood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly observed with regard to the earth's motion; for if we fix a ball of clay on a spindle, and whirl it round, we shall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. Now this is exactly the case with regard to our earth, only that its axis, represented by the spindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not perfectly spherical, the difference from that figure is so small, that it may be represented by a globe, or ball, without any sensible error.

We have already mentioned the diameter of the globe according to the best observations; so that its circumference is 25,038 English miles. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of measuring, to be divided into three hundred and sixty parts or degrees, each degree containing sixty geographical miles, or sixty-nine English miles and a half. These degrees are in the same manner conceived to be divided each into sixty minutes.

Axis and Poles of the Earth. The axis of the earth is that imaginary line passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the Earth; one in the North, and the other in the South, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of these poles is of great use to the geographer, in determining the distance and situation of places; for the poles mark, as it were, the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; so that the nearer one approaches the poles the farther he removes from the equator; and, contrariwise, in removing from the poles you approach the equator.

Circles of the Globe. These are commonly divided into the greater and lesser. A great circle is that whose plane passes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemispheres. A lesser circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot pass through the centre of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are six in number, the lesser only four.

Equator. The first great circle we shall speak of is the equator, which we have had occasion to hint at already. It is called sometimes the Equinoctial, because of the equality of the days and nights when the sun is perpendicular to it; and by navigators it is also called the *Line*, because, according to their rude notions, they believe it to be a great line drawn upon the sea from East to West, dividing the earth into the Northern and Southern hemispheres, and which they were actually to pass in sailing from the one into the other. The poles of this circle are the same with those of the world. It passes through the East and West points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the Northern and Southern hemispheres. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, the use of which will soon appear.

Horizon. This great circle is represented by a broad circular piece of wood, encompassing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres. Geographers very properly distinguish the horizon into the sensible and rational. The first may be conceived to be made by any great plane on the surface of the sea, which seems to divide the heavens into two hemispheres, the one above, the other below the level of the earth. This circle determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the Eastern edge, we say they rise; and when they go beneath the Western, we say they are set. It appears then

that each place has its own sensible horizon. The other horizon, called the *Rational*, encompasses the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is two points in its axis, each ninety degrees distant from its plane, as those of all circles are) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*: the first exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle, which represents it on the globe, has several circles drawn upon it; of these the innermost is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve signs of the zodiac, (of which hereafter) viz. thirty to each sign. Next to this you have the names of these signs. Next to this the days of the month, according to the old stile, and then according to the new stile. Besides these there is a circle representing the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compass. The use of all these will be explained afterwards.

Meridian. This circle is represented by the brass ring on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; so that counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the Eastern and Western hemispheres. This circle is called the *Meridian*, because when the sun comes to the South part of it, it is then *meridies*, or mid-day, and then the sun has its greatest altitude for that day, which is therefore called its *Meridian Altitude*. Now as the sun is never in its meridian altitude at two places East or West of one another at the same time, each of these places must have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

Quadrant of Altitude. In order to supply the place of the compasses in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of brass, screwed on the brazen meridian, which contains 90 degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the distances and bearings of places are measured without the trouble of first extending the compasses between them, and then applying the same to the equator. This plate is called the *Quadrant of Altitude*.

Hour Circle. This is a small brass circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into 24 hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

It has been found easier to distinguish places by the quarters of the earth, in which they lay, than by their distance from any one point. Thus, after it was discovered that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the *Northern* and *Southern Hemispheres*, it was easy to see that all places on the globe might be distinguished, according, as they lay on the North or South side of the equator. Besides, after the four lesser circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and consequently that the places on its surface might be distinguished according as they lay in one or other of these portions,

tions, which are called Zones or Belts, from their partaking of breadth. That part of the earth between the tropics was called by the ancients the Torrid, or Burnt Zone; because they conceived, that, being continually exposed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the sun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and sandy deserts. This notion, however, has long since been refuted. It is found, that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almost throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but so fruitful, that in many places they have two harvests in a year; all sorts of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes more perfect metals, precious stones, and pearls, than all the rest of the earth together. In short, the countries of Africa, Asia, and America, which lye under this zone, are in all respects the most fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two temperate zones are comprised between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, because meeting the rays of the sun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat. The two frigid zones lye between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are inclosed within the polar circles. They are called the Frigid or Frozen, because most part of the year it is extremely cold there, and every thing is frozen so long as the sun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However, these zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much less fit for living in than the torrid zone.

None of all these zones is thoroughly discovered by the Europeans. Little is known to us of the Southern temperate zone, and though some islands and sea-coasts in the Northern frigid zone have come to our knowledge, we have none at all of the Southern frigid zone. The Northern temperate and torrid zones are those we are best acquainted with.

Climates. But the divisions of the earth into hemispheres and zones, though it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lyes, is not sufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the distances between one place and another. This, however, is still more necessary; because it is of more importance to mankind, to know the situation of places, with regard to one another, than with regard to the earth itself. The first step taken for determining this matter, was to divide the earth into what is called *Climates*. It was observed that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the longest day increased in proportion as was advanced North or South on either side of it. The ancients, therefore determined how far any place was North or South of the equator, or what is called the Latitude of the place, from the greatest length of the day at that place. This made them conceive a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different distances from the equator. And as they called the space contained between these circles *Climates*, because they declined from the equator towards the pole, so the circles themselves may be called *Climatical Parallels*. This therefore was a new division of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and still continues in use, though, as we shall shew the design which first introduced it, it may be better answered in another way. There are 30 climates

mates between the equator and either pole. In the first twenty-four the days increase by half hours, but in the remaining six, between the polar circle and the poles, the days increase by months.

The distance of places from the equator, or what is called their Latitude, is easily measured on the globe, by means of the meridian above described. For we have only to bring the place, whose latitude we would know, to the meridian where the degrees of latitude is marked, and it will be exactly over the place. Now this is the manner alluded to, by which the distance of places from the equator is most properly distinguished; but it could not be adopted until the figure and circumference of the earth were known, after which it was easy to determine the number of miles in each 360th part or degree of this circumference, and consequently know the latitude of places. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, it is either Northern or Southern, and the nearer the poles the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, because the poles where they terminate are at that distance from the equator.

Parallels of Latitude. Through every degree of latitude, or more properly through every particular place on the earth, geographers suppose a circle to be drawn, which they call a Parallel of Latitude. The intersection of this circle with the meridian of any place shews the true situation of that place.

Longitude. The longitude of a place is its situation with regard to its meridian, and consequently reckoned towards the East or West: in reckoning the longitude there is no particular spot from which we ought to set out preferably to another, but for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the most Westerly of the Canary Islands, was considered as the first meridian in most of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be so many degrees East or West of the meridian of Ferro. These degrees are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be moved from another above half that distance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts, in approaching the pole. Hence in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are set down in the following table.

Longitude and Latitude found. To find the longitude and latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we shall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of these degrees into miles; and remembering

bering

bering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 60 geographic miles, or $69\frac{1}{2}$ English, we shall be able exactly to determine the distance between any places on the globe.

Distance of Places Measured. The distance of places which lye in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly South, North, East, or West, from one another, may be measured in a readier way, by extending the compasses from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator.

A T A B L E,

S H E W I N G

The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude from the equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	31	51	43	61	29	04
2	59	94	32	50	88	62	28	17
3	59	92	33	50	32	63	27	24
4	59	86	34	49	74	64	26	30
5	59	77	35	49	15	65	25	36
6	59	67	36	48	54	66	24	41
7	59	56	37	47	92	67	23	45
8	59	40	38	47	28	68	22	48
9	59	20	39	46	62	69	21	51
10	59	08	40	46	00	70	20	52
11	58	89	41	45	28	71	19	54
12	58	68	42	44	95	72	18	55
13	58	46	43	43	88	73	17	54
14	58	22	44	43	16	74	16	53
15	58	00	45	42	43	75	15	52
16	57	60	46	41	68	76	14	51
17	57	30	47	41	00	77	13	50
18	57	04	48	40	15	78	12	48
19	56	73	49	39	36	79	11	45
20	56	38	50	38	57	80	10	42
21	56	00	51	37	73	81	09	38
22	55	63	52	37	00	82	08	35
23	55	23	53	36	18	83	07	32
24	54	81	54	35	26	84	06	28
25	54	38	55	34	41	85	05	23
26	54	00	56	33	55	86	04	18
27	53	44	57	32	67	87	03	14
28	53	00	58	31	79	88	02	09
29	52	48	59	30	90	89	01	05
30	51	96	60	30	00	90	00	00

OF THE VARIOUS POSITIONS OF THE
GLOBE OR SPHERE.

I. OF THE RIGHT POSITION.

That position of the sphere where the equator is perpendicular to the horizon is called the *Right Position*.

1. Here both poles are in the horizon.
2. All the stars do rise and set.
3. All the nocturnal arches are equal to their diurnal; and therefore there is a perpetual equality of days and nights.
4. The twilight is here shortest; because the sun ascends and descends right to the horizon.

II. OF THE OBLIQUE POSITION.

That position of the sphere where the equator is oblique to the horizon is called the *Oblique Position*.

1. Here, when the sun is in the equator, it makes the days and nights every where equal.
2. The greater the elevation of the pole is, the longer the Summer days are, and the shorter the Winter days: so that under the polar circles, at the time of the solstices, it is all day, or all night.
3. The twilight is so much the longer as the pole is higher: so that in latitudes of about 60 degrees, when it is near the Summer solstice, the twilight is sufficient to read by at midnight.

III. OF THE PARALLEL POSITION.

That position of the sphere where the equator is parallel to the horizon is called the *Parallel Position*.

1. Here the poles of the equator are in the zenith and nadir.
2. The stars and planets, in their diurnal motion, describe circumferences parallel to the horizon.
3. The sun is half a-year above, and half a-year under the horizon; for the horizon bisects the ecliptic.
4. Here the same hemisphere of fixed stars is always above the horizon, and so is each planet during half its period; viz. Saturn about 14 years, Jupiter 6, Mars 1, Venus 1-3d of a-year, and Mercury 1-6th of a-year.

But the polar inhabitants (if any) are not in darkness all the time of the sun's absence; for the moon, while brightest, viz. from the first quarter to the last, does not set.

And the twilight lasts while the sun has less than 18 degrees declination; so that those under the North pole are without twilight only from the middle of November till the end of January, and under the South pole there is an absence of twilight from the middle of May to the end of July.

Also, because of the refraction in such dense air, the sun appears sooner, and goes off later, by several days, than otherwise it would; as has been found by experience.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISION OF THE
TERRAQUEOUS GLOBE.

By this natural division is meant the parts into which the surface of the earth is divided by the interposition of land and water.

The

The superficies, or surface of the Terraqueous Globe, has nearly three parts in four covered by the waters, and somewhat more than the other fourth part is land.

Geographers generally reckon four Continents, or very large portions of land, each containing many countries; namely, Europe, Asia, Africa, and America; and also the continents near the Poles: That about the North Pole is called the *Terra Artica*; and that about the South Pole is called the *Terra Antartica*.

From what is yet known of these polar continents, they appear to have very few inhabitants, neither are the lands parcelled out into different kingdoms and states, like to the above-named four continents: Besides these continents, there are, in the neighbourhood of each of them, several pieces of land quite surrounded by the sea, which are called *Islands*.

The continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa, are contiguous in some parts, and lye mostly in the Northern Hemisphere; and so does the greatest part of America; which is therefore called *North America*, and stretches very near to the North Pole; but this is not yet determined, because the difficulties of approaching the Pole, on account of the intense cold, have not hitherto been surmounted: The other part, called *South America*, lyes chiefly in the Southern Hemisphere: These two parts of America are joined together by a narrow piece of land called an *Isthmus*, and is called the Isthmus of *Darien*; Asia and Africa do also join together by such a narrow neck of land, called the Isthmus of *Suez*.

As the waters separate the continents, so the continents separate the waters, and thereby form five very large collections of waters called *Oceans*; namely, the Northern Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, the Southern Ocean, the Indian Ocean, and the Atlantic Ocean.

The Northern Ocean flows along the coasts of the Arctic continent, and the Northern parts of Europe, Asia, and America.

The Pacific Ocean, which is larger than all the other oceans put together, washes the Western and North-West shores of America; and the Eastern and North-Eastern shores of Asia: It extends East and West about 10,000 miles, and North and South about 11,000 miles.

The Southern Ocean lyes to the Southward of America and Africa; it joins the Pacific Ocean to the Southward, and skirts some parts of the Antartic continent: Its extent is not known.

The Indian Ocean lyes chiefly to the South of Asia, but extends to the Pacific Ocean on the East, and to parts of the Southern or Antartic continent: It extends about 4000 miles East and West, and between 7 and 8000 miles North and South.

The Atlantic Ocean lyes chiefly between America to the West, and Europe and Africa on the East, and joins on to the Indian and Southern Oceans: Its extent from North to South is about 6000 miles, and from East to West between 3 and 4000 miles; the Northern part is usually called the Western Ocean, as lying to the Westward of Europe.

It must not be imagined that these oceans are distinct parts bounded by land, for all of them do make one great connected mass of water;

water ; but are named as above, from their situation with respect to the continents : Neither are the extents above-mentioned to be understood otherwise than on a mean ; the extents being in some places more, and in other places less, than the number of miles assigned to the respective oceans.

These oceans also, on the parts contiguous to the land, have very irregular boundaries ; some very large parts extending between the continents, or within a continent, are called *Seas* : Other parts, of a lesser size, flowing within some large hollow part of the land, are called *Bays* or *Gulphs* ; if the passage from the ocean or sea into the gulph is a narrow channel, the passage is called a *Strait* or *Streight*. There are in some of the continents very large pieces of water, called *Lakes*, which do not appear to have any connection with the oceans or seas.

A part of land which is almost encompassed by water is called a *Peninsula*, and the narrow neck by which the Peninsula is joined to the other land is called an *Isthmus* : A mountain extending into the sea is called a *Promontory*, and that part of a Promontory most extended into the sea is called a *Cape*, or *Headland*.

Of the TERRESTRIAL GLOBE and MAPS.

It has been customary for Geographers to represent on a sphere or globe the natural and political divisions of the surface of the earth ; whereon are distinguished the continents and islands, the oceans, seas, gulphs, lakes, &c. And the continents are divided into the several kingdoms and states which at that time are existing ; for by the frequent quarrels among nations the boundaries of countries are altered, and therefore the political division at one time does not always agree with that of another time : But it should be observed, that, on the largest globes that are made, the size of the several countries cannot be expressed large enough for to shew all the parts distinctly ; and therefore the representations of the continents, and the several kingdoms they contain, and also of particular kingdoms, and of the several parts of them, are drawn on large sheets of paper, which are called Maps ; and in these maps all the particulars of the coasts, islands, bays, rivers, mountains, and towns, may be so distinctly expressed, as to furnish competent ideas of even the small parts represented.

When a learner takes a Terrestrial Globe in his hand, which is here supposed, he should first look for the several continents by their names, and draw his finger round the out-line or boundary of each, which he may do by the help of the general tables in this Grammar, prefixed to the account of each continent ; and this he should do so often, till he can lay his hand on any continent from its figure only, without looking for the name : He should then do the same by the oceans, so that, knowing well the situation of all the great parts, he will not afterwards be at a loss in looking for the small parts : The next thing should be to find the kingdoms and states of each conti-

nent ;

hent; and on these he should so long practise himself, as to be able to lay his finger on any country, sea, or great island, belonging to either continent, without seeking the name, but only from the figure, or from the position of it, with respect to any great part: And when he finds himself able to do this readily, which may be attained in a few days, he may then proceed to seek the places of the principal mountains, rivers, and towns.

With this ready acquaintance with the capital parts on the globe, he may proceed to the maps of particular parts, where he will be able to find more particularly such places as he reads of in history, or news-papers; and be able to follow a traveller through all the places he mentions in the course of his journey; or to see the track pursued by an army in its march from place to place.

There is generally marked on Terrestrial Globes the track which one of the Circumnavigators has sailed, during the course of his voyage out and home. That of Lord Anson is commonly laid down on the modern globes; a learner should trace, or run over this track with his finger frequently, which will furnish him with the notions of what seas are to be sailed over, in passing from one continent to another; and also what countries, coasts, or islands, are passed by in voyages made from one place to another.

When a learner has made himself master of the preceding particulars, he may proceed to the solution of Problems, which are usually given to shew the use of the globe, as they furnish many particulars requisite to be well-known by those who desire to be competently skilled in Geography.

GEOGRAPHICAL PROBLEMS

PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

P R O B L E M I.

The diameter of an artificial globe being given, to find its surface in square, and its solidity in cubic measure.

MULTIPLY the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the first: Then multiply the said product by one sixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the second. After the same manner we may find the surface and solidity of the natural globe, as also the whole body of the Atmosphere surrounding the same, provided it be always and every where of the same height; for having found the perpendicular height thereof, by that common experiment of the ascent of Mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, double the said height, and add the same to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as

a new diameter by its proper circumference, and from the product subtract the solidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmosphere.

P R O B L E M II.

Given any place on the Globe;

Required its Latitude and Longitude.

Solution. Turn the Globe about its axis till the proposed place is brought under the brass Meridian, on that part where the degrees are numbered from the Equator towards the Pole.

Then the degrees on the brass Meridian, over the place, will shew the Latitude required.

And it is to be reckoned as North, or South Latitude, according as the place is found on the North or South side of the Equator. And by turning the Globe about, all the places which pass under this degree of the Meridian, will have the same Latitude.

Also, the place being brought to the Meridian again, the degrees on the Equator, cut by the edge of the Meridian, will give the Longitude of that place.

And all the place under the brass Meridian will have the same Longitude.

When the degrees of Longitude are numbered quite round the Equator from the Meridian, where Longitude begins, to 360 degrees; the Longitude is usually named so many degrees East; but if above 180, that number taken out of 360 will give the Longitude Westward.

Thus. The Northernmost point of the continent of Europe, called the *North Cape*, will be found in the Latitude of about $71\frac{1}{2}$ degrees North, and about $26\frac{1}{2}$ East Longitude from the Meridian of London.

Also: The Southernmost point of the continent of America, called *Cape Horn*, is in South Latitude about $55\ 3\text{rd}$ degrees nearly; and in Longitude about 66 degrees West from London.

Hence. The reverse of this Problem is easy, namely, to find a place upon the Globe which shall have a given Latitude and Longitude: Suppose $36^\circ\ 1\text{st}$ N. and 5° W.

For. Seek the given degrees of Longitude, 5° West on the Equator, and bring it to the Meridian: on which count the given degrees of Latitude, $36^\circ\ 1\text{st}$ N; and under this Latitude will be the place required, which will be found to be *Gibraltar*.

P R O B L E M III.

Given the time of the year;

Required the Sun's place in the Ecliptic, and his declination.

Solution. Seek the time given in the circle of months on the Horizon; and right against it, in the circle of the signs, is the Sun's place.

Thus. The 10th of March stands against the 20th degree of Pisces.

Then Pisces being sought on the Globe, on that part of the Ecliptic which lyes on the South side of the Equator, and the 20th degree

degree brought to the Meridian, will stand under the 4th degree on the South side of the Equator, and so much is the Sun's declination on that day.

P R O B L E M I V.

*Given any place on the Globe, and the time of the year;
To rectify the Globe for that place and time.*

Solution. Find the Latitude of the place by Prob. I.; over which fix the quadrant of Altitude; and the Globe is *rectify'd for the Zenith.*

Raise or lower the pole, by moving the Meridian in its notches, till the number of degrees of Latitude, counted from the pole on the Meridian, is cut by the upper surface of the Horizon: And this is *rectifying for the Latitude.*

Find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic by Prob. II.; bring it to the Meridian, and set the index of the hour-circle to the upper XII, and the Globe is *rectify'd for Noon.*

Here the Horizon of the Globe represents the Horizon of the place; and the elevation of the Pole above the Horizon is equal to the Latitude of the place.

P R O B L E M V.

Given two places on the Globe.

Required their distance from one another: And on what point of the compass one of them bears from the other. Suppose London and Jerusalem.

Solution. Rectify the Globe for the Latitude and Zenith of one of the places, as for London, by Prob. III.

Keep the Globe in this position, and move the quadrant about till its edge cuts the other place, as Jerusalem; count the number of degrees on the quadrant between the two places, and they will shew their distance in degrees, viz. $32^{\circ} \frac{1}{2}$.

These degrees multiplied by 60, give 1950 for the distance in Geographical miles; Or the degrees multiplied by 70, give 2275, the distance in English miles nearly.

Also the quadrant lying over London and Jerusalem, its edge will cut the Horizon against the 70th degree nearly of the compass; or at S. 70 degrees East, which is the bearing of Jerusalem from London.

Also. All the places over which the edge of the quadrant passes, will have the same position from London as Jerusalem, its edge will

And in like manner may the bearing and distance of any two places, not exceeding 90 degrees of distance, be found.

Hence it is easy to find all the places that are at a given distance from a given place.

Thus. To find all the places that are 2275 English miles distance from London.

Solution. Divide the given distance 2275 miles by 70, it gives $32\frac{1}{2}$ degrees

degrees; let the quadrant be screwed over London, when brought under the Meridian: Then the quadrant being moved round, while the Globe is kept steady, will shew all the places that are $32\frac{1}{2}$ degrees distant from London; these are, part of Barbary, Negroland, Bildaderid, part of Egypt, Isthmus of Suez in Africa; also Jerusalem, part of Syria, Derbent on the Caspian Sea, Astracan, part of Siberia, Straights of Waygates, Nova Zembla, in Asia; and James's Islands, Straights of Bell-Isle, parts of the East coast of Newfoundland; in North America.

The distance of places above 90° may be found by extending the points of a pair of compasses to the two places, and applying that extent to the equator; for the number of degrees between the two points will be the distance.

If the Globe was rectified for Jerusalem, and the quadrant laid over Jerusalem and London, the distance would be the same, but the quadrant will cut the N. W. point of the Horizon, or N. 45° West, which shews the bearing of London from Jerusalem.

But the bearing of two places from one another should be on opposite rhombs or points of the compass.

Therefore, this solution, instead of giving the bearing, gives the angle of position, which is the angle made by the Meridian of one place, and a great circle passing thro' both places. But every rhomb is not a circle of the globe.

P R O B L E M VI.

*Given a place on the globe and hour of the day,
Required all those places which have noon at that hour.
Suppose when it is 3 o'clock afternoon at London.*

Solution. Bring the given place, London, to the Meridian, and set the hour index to the given hour, 3 afternoon.

Turn the Globe till the index points at XII at noon. Then all the places under the Meridian will have their noon when it is three of the clock afternoon at London.

These places will be in some parts of North and South America, and some of the Caribbean islands.

And, on the contrary, when it is noon at one place, suppose London; to find what hour it is at any other proposed place; suppose at Bombay, on the Malabar coast in the East Indies.

Here London being brought to the Meridian, and the index set to XII at noon; then the Globe turned round till Bombay comes under the Meridian, the index will point at 4 3-fourth hours afternoon, when it is noon at London.

Also, when it is noon at a given place, suppose Barbadoes, to find what time it will be at another place, suppose London.

Now Barbadoes being brought to the Meridian, and the index set to XII at noon; then the Globe turned round till London comes to the Meridian, the index will point to 4 of the clock in the afternoon, for the time at London when it is noon at Barbadoes.

And

And hence it will be very easy to find what hour it is in any proposed place, at any given hour in another given place.

Thus : When it is 10 o'clock in the forenoon at Mexico, it will be found to be 3 quarters after 4 in the afternoon at Paris.

For Mexico being brought to the Meridian, and the hour-index set to x in the forenoon ; then turning the Globe till Paris comes to the Meridian, the index will point to 4 3-fourth hours afternoon.

Again : London being brought to the Meridian, and the index set to xii, move the Globe till Naples comes to the Meridian, and the index will point to 1 o'clock, Naples being 15 degrees to the Eastward of London ; and all places lying 15 degrees East of London have their noon-day an hour earlier. Continue to turn the Globe 15 degrees further, and Petersburg, Constantinople, and Grand Cairo, will be found under the Meridian, or near to it ; consequently the index will point to 2 o'clock, these three cities having mid-day about two hours before London. If the Globe is turned another 15 degrees, the index will point to the hour of three ; for all places lying then under the brazen Meridian, being 45 degrees East of London, have the sun three hours earlier ; and thus for every 15 degrees the Globe is so turned, so many hours sooner will the sun be on the Meridian of places in such Longitude. On the contrary, if it was required what hour it is at any place 15 degrees West of London, rectify the Globe for London, as before, and, having set the index at xii, turn the Globe till that place comes under the brazen Meridian, and the index will point to the hour of eleven, because all such places as lye 15 degrees West of London have their noon one hour after, as at the Madeiras : And in like manner for other places West of London.

P R O B L E M VII.

Given the hour of any day in the year at a given place,

Required the place where the Sun is vertical at that time.

Let the given time be at a quarter after 7 o'clock in the forenoon at London, on the 10th of May.

Solution. Find the sun's place in the Ecliptic on the given day, the 10th of May, by Prob. II. which gives 20 degrees in Taurus ; bring that place to the Meridian, mark the degrees over it, viz. 17 degrees, and this will be the Sun's declination on that day.

Bring London to the Meridian, and set the index to 7 1-fourth hours forenoon.

Turn the Globe till the index points to xii at noon ; then the place under the said marked degree has the Sun in the Zenith at that time ; which is Dabul on the Malabar coast in the East Indies.

Then by turning the Globe quite round, all the places which pass under the 17th degree marked on the Meridian, will have the Sun vertical to them on that day ; which will be in India, within and without the Ganges, Bay of Tonquin, North part of the island of Manilla, one of the Marian isles, part of Mexico, Jamaica, Island of Antego, across the continent of Africa, Red Sea, and Arabia Felix.

So

And

I N T R O D U C T I O N.

So that every place in the Torrid Zone will have the Sun in the Zenith, when his declination is equal to the latitude of those places.

P R O B L E M V I I I.

*Given a place in the Torrid Zone,
Required on what days will the Sun be vertical to that place,
Suppose at Cape Comorin, in the East Indies; and Potosi, in Peru.*

Solution. Note the latitude of the given place on the Meridian. Turn the Globe, and mark what parts of the Ecliptic pass under the latitude marked on the Meridian. Seek for those parts of the Ecliptic in the circles of signs on the Horizon; and the days of the months will be found with those parts of the Ecliptic.

Thus Cape Comorin is in 8° North latitude; and 20 degrees of Aries, and 10 degrees of Virgo, pass under that latitude on the Meridian. Then 20° of Aries, and 10 degrees of Virgo, being sought among the signs on the Horizon, they will be found to stand against the 9th of April, and the 2d of September.

Again. Potosi is in 20 degrees of South latitude; under which will pass 27 degrees of Scorpio, and 3 degrees of Aquarius: And these found on the Horizon give the 19th of November and the 3d of January; so on the 9th of April and 2d of September the Sun will be vertical to Cape Comorin, and will be also vertical to Potosi on the 19th of November and on the 3d of January.

P R O B L E M I X.

*Given the Sun's greatest declination.
Required the lengths of the longest days and nights in all the parallels of latitude on the Globe at one view.*

Solution. Bring the Sun's place in the tropic of Cancer to the Meridian, and rectify the Globe for $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of latitude. Observe the points where any proposed parallel of latitude cuts the Horizon, and the Meridian, or hour-circle, crossing in those points, that parallel of latitude.

Then the number of Meridians or hour-circles, above the Horizon, between those points, will shew the length of the longest day in that latitude.

Thus. At the Equator, 12 Meridians are above the Horizon, shewing the days and nights are each 12 hours.

In the parallel of 10 degrees of latitude there are between 12 and 13 spaces between the Meridians above the Horizon, shewing the length of the days in that latitude to be between 12 and 13 hours; so in latitude of 20 degrees the days are between 13 and 14 hours long.

In latitude of 30 degrees there are 14 of such meridional spaces above the Horizon, shewing the days to be 14 hours long.

In latitude 40 degrees the days are between 14 and 15 hours long.

In latitude of 50 degrees the days are somewhat above 16 hours.

In latitude of 60 degrees about 18 hours long.

In latitude of 66 1-half degrees, and all above, none of the places go below the horizon, and therefore the day is 24 or more hours long, and no night.

In these respective latitudes, the lengths of the days taken out of 24 hours leave the lengths of the nights.

These lengths of nights become the lengths of the days in the Northern hemisphere, when the sun is in the tropic of Capricorn.

What is said of Northern latitudes, when the sun is in Cancer, holds also of Southern latitudes, when the sun is in Capricorn.

The above solution, although it shews at one view a comparative length of the longest days in different latitudes, yet a more accurate solution for any particular place may be found.

Thus. Rectify the globe for the latitude. (Prob. III.)

Bring the solstitial point of that hemisphere, wherein the place is, to the Eastern part of the horizon; and set the hour-index to XII. Turn the globe till the solstitial point comes to the Western part of the horizon; and the hours past over by the index shew the length of the longest day in that place.

Those hours taken out of 24 hours, the remainder shews the length of the night.

Thus. The longest day at London will be found to be about 16 hours and a half, and consequently the shortest night will be about 7 hours and a half.

P R O B L E M X.

Given the latitude of the place, and day of the month,

Required the length of the day and night, and the time of the Sun's rising and setting.

Solution. Rectify the globe for the given latitude. (Prob. III.)

Find the sun's place, and bring it to the East side of the horizon, and set the hour-index to XII at noon; then turn the globe from East to West, until the sun's place touch the West side of the horizon, and the hours passed over by the index will shew the number of hours the day is long.

Thus. If the hour-index points to 4 in the morning, which is 4 hours beyond the lower XII, then are the days 16 hours long.

Again, bring the sun's place to the brazen meridian, setting the index at the upper XII, and turn the globe from West to East, till it touch the East side of the horizon, and then see at what hour the index points, for that is the hour the sun rises at.

Also, turn the globe from East to West, till the sun's place touches the West side of the horizon, and the index will point at the hour the sun sets at.

It may be observed, that the time of sun-rising, taken out of 12 hours, will give the time of sun-setting.

The time of setting being doubled, gives the length of the day; and the time of rising being doubled, will give the length of the night.

P R O B L E M X I.

*Given the latitude of the place, and day of the month,
Required the time when the twilight begins and ends.*

Solution. Rectify the globe for the latitude and zenith. (Pr. III.)

Bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the meridian, and set the index to XII at noon. Mark the point of the ecliptic directly opposite to the sun's place; for when the sun's place is 18 degrees below the horizon, his opposite place will be 18 degrees above the horizon.

Turn the globe, and at the same time move the quadrant, till 18 degrees on the quadrant stand over the said marked point of the ecliptic, then will the hour-index shew the beginning and the end of twilight.

That is, the time of beginning in the morning, when the said points on the quadrant and ecliptic meet in the Western hemisphere; or the time of ending in the evening, when the said points meet in the Eastern hemisphere.

The twilight begins in the morning, when the sun approaches within 18 degrees of our horizon; and ends in the evening, when the sun is descended 18 degrees below the horizon, but near the equator, the sun setting perpendicularly, it will descend 18 degrees below the horizon, in about an hour after sun-set, when dark night commences in those latitudes; whereas in higher latitudes, as in 30 degrees of North latitude, the sun sets so obliquely in winter, that it is near two hours after sun-set before dark night commences; for the further distant any place is from the equator, the more obliquely the sun sets in such place, and consequently so much longer the twilight continues.

At London, when the sun's declination North is greater than 20 1-half degrees, there is no total darkness, but only twilight; which happens from the 26th of May to the 18th of July, nearly two months.

Under the North pole the twilight ceases, when the sun's declination is greater than 18 degrees South, which is from the 13th of November till the 29th of January; so that notwithstanding the sun is absent from that part of the world for half a year together, yet total darkness does not continue above 11 weeks; and besides, the moon is above the horizon at the poles, for a whole fortnight of every month throughout the year.

P R O B L E M X I I.

*Given any place on the globe, without the polar circle,
Required the climate that place is in.*

Solution. Find the length of the longest day in that place, Then the excess of the longest day above 12 hours being doubled, will give the climate required.

Thus. At London, where the longest day is about 16 1-half hours

hours, which is 4 1-half hours above 12; then 4 1-half doubled gives 9 for the number of the climate that London is in.

But the climate may be found more accurately by the table of climates, (Art. 110.) ; by seeking in the column of latitudes for that of the given place, against which will be found the number of the climate that place is in.

This table also shews the latitudes and climates within the polar circle.

Hence, by having the length of the longest day in any place, the latitude of that place is also known.

For the difference between 12 hours, and the given length of the day, being doubled, will give the climate belonging to that place ; then the climate being known, the latitude is also known by the table, (Art. 110.)

P R O B L E M XIII.

*Given any place on the globe,
Required the situation of the Antaci, Periaci, and Antipodes, to that place.*

Solution. Bring the given place to the meridian, and note the latitude; then that place under the meridian, having the same latitude, on the contrary side of the equator, will be the situation of the *Antaci*; they having opposite seasons of the year, but the same times of the day.

The given place being under the meridian, its latitude noted, and the hour-index set to XII at noon,

Turn the globe till the index point to XII at midnight, and the point under the noted latitude will be the place of the *Periaci*; they having the same seasons, but opposite times of the day.

The globe remaining in this position, seek the place under the meridian, having the same latitude as the given place, but on the contrary side of the equator; and the place thus found will be the position of the *Antipodes* to the given place, they having opposite seasons, and opposite times of the day.

P R O B L E M XIV.

*Given a place in either frigid or frozen zone,
Required the time when the sun begins to appear at, or depart from, that place; also, how many successive days he is present to, or absent from, that place.*

Solution. Rectify the globe for the latitude of the given place, (Prob. III.)

Turn the globe round, and mark what degrees in the first and second quarters of the ecliptic, in the Northern hemisphere, are cut by the North point of the horizon. If the given place is in North latitude, and so the North pole is above the horizon.

Find these marked degrees of the ecliptic among the signs on the horizon, and their corresponding days of the month; then all the time between those days the sun does not set in that place.

Again. Note what degrees in the 3d and 4th quarters of the ec-

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Turn the globe, and at the same time move the quadrant, till 18 degrees on the quadrant stand over the said marked point of the ecliptic, then will the hour-index shew the beginning and the end of twilight.

That is, the time of beginning in the morning, when the said points on the quadrant and ecliptic meet in the Western hemisphere; or the time of ending in the evening, when the said points meet in the Eastern hemisphere.

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P R O B L E M XIII.

Given any place on the globe,

Required the situation of the Antaci, Periaci, and Antipodes, to that place.

Solution. Bring the given place to the meridian, and note the latitude ; then that place under the meridian, having the same latitude, on the contrary side of the equator, will be the situation of the *Antaci* ; they having opposite seasons of the year, but the same times of the day.

The given place being under the meridian, its latitude noted, and the hour-index set to XII at noon,

Turn the globe till the index point to XII at midnight, and the point under the noted latitude will be the place of the *Periaci* ; they having the same seasons, but opposite times of the day.

The globe remaining in this position, seek the place under the meridian, having the same latitude as the given place, but on the contrary side of the equator ; and the place thus found will be the position of the *Antipodes* to the given place, they having opposite seasons, and opposite times of the day.

P R O B L E M XIV.

Given a place in either frigid or frozen zone,

Required the time when the sun begins to appear at, or depart from, that place ; also, how many successive days he is present to, or absent from, that place.

Solution. Rectify the globe for the latitude of the given place, (Prob. III.)

Turn the globe round, and mark what degrees in the first and second quarters of the ecliptic, in the Northern hemisphere, are cut by the North point of the horizon. If the given place is in North latitude, and so the North pole is above the horizon.

Find these marked degrees of the ecliptic among the signs on the horizon, and their corresponding days of the month ; then all the time between those days the sun does not set in that place.

Again. Note what degrees in the 3d and 4th quarters of the ecliptic,

liptic, in the Southern hemisphere, will be cut by the South point of the horizon. Those noted degrees being found among the signs on the horizon, and the corresponding days in the circle of months, then will the intermediate days shew the length of time the sun will be absent from that given place in the Winter season: the day to the third quarter being that on which the sun begins to disappear; and the day corresponding to the degree, in the 4th quarter, shews when he begins to appear to that place.

Suppose the given place was Cherry-Island, in latitude $74\frac{1}{2}$ degrees North; then the North pole being elevated $74\frac{1}{2}$ degrees above the horizon, and the globe moved round, the North point of the horizon will cut the ecliptic in the first quarter, in 10 degrees of Taurus, which answers to April 30th; and in the 2d quarter, in 20 degrees of Leo, answering to August the 12th; the interval is 104 days, during which times the sun never sets at that place, and consequently makes constant day.

Also, the South point of the horizon will cut the ecliptic, in the 3d quarter, in the 10th degree of Scorpio, which answers to November the 2d; and in the 4th quarter, in the 20th degree of Aquarius, answering to February the 8th; the interval is 99 days from the sun's beginning to disappear at Cherry-Island on November the 2d, to his beginning to appear at that place on February the 8th; from that time to the 30th of April he rises and sets there; and then is always present till August the 12th; then rises and sets till November the 2d, and then is quite absent till February the 8th.

P R O B L E M XV.

Given any number of days less than 182,

Required that parallel of latitude on the globe, where the sun does not set during that number of days.

Solution. Count on the ecliptic, beginning at the summer solstice, as many degrees as are half the given number of days; abating one degree on every 30.

Bring that point of the ecliptic, so numbered, under the meridian, on the North side of the horizon, and note the degree of the meridian standing over it; for that will be the latitude of the place required.

Suppose the latitude of that place in the Northern hemisphere is required, where the sun does not set for 104 days.

Half the number of days is 52, and abating two, being near 60, leaves 50; then 50 degrees reckoned on the ecliptic from the summer solstice, or first point of Cancer, will fall about the 10th degree of Taurus; which point of Taurus, brought to the meridian, falls under $74\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of the meridian; and shews, that in the parallel of $74\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of North latitude, the sun will shine during the space of 104 days without setting.

P R O B L E M XVI.

Given the hour of any day in the year, at any place,

Required all those places of the earth where the sun is visible and invisible, where he appears to be rising and where setting, and where mid-day and mid-night.

Solution. Find the place where the sun is vertical at that time. (Prob. VI.)

Rectify the globe for the latitude of that place, the same with the sun's declination, it being brought to the meridian,

Then all those places above the horizon will have the sun visible, or have day; those below the horizon have night.

The places in the Western half of the horizon have the sun rising; those in the Eastern half have the sun setting.

The places under the meridian, above the horizon, have mid-day; and those which are opposite, and under the horizon, have mid-night.

P R O B L E M XVII.

Given the latitude of the place and day of the month,

Required the sun's declination, and meridian altitude, the time of sun rising and setting, and on what point of the compass.

Solution. Rectify the globe for the latitude and noon, (Pr. III.)

Then the degree of meridian over the sun's place is the declination. And the number of degrees counted on the meridian, from the sun's declination down to the horizon, shews the sun's meridian altitude.

Or thus. Since the height of the equator above the horizon is always equal to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees,

Then the height of the equator, increased by the declination when the sun is above the equator, or lessened by the declination when below the equator, will give the meridian altitude.

Again. Bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the Eastern side of the horizon, and the hour-index will shew the time of rising; and opposite to the sun's place on the horizon is the point of the compass on which he rises that morning.

The sun's place in the ecliptic, brought to the Western side of the horizon, opposite to it will be the point of the compass on the horizon on which the sun sets that evening, and the hour-index will point to the time.

Thus. If the globe be rectified for London, at the Summer solstice, (June 22.) and the sun's place in the ecliptic is brought to the East side of the horizon; against it stands the letters N. E. for North-East, upon the innermost circle of the wooden horizon; and on turning the globe till the sun's place is brought to the West side of the horizon, it will point to the letters N. W. for North-West, upon the horizon, which are the points the sun rises and sets at on the 22d of June.

On the contrary, the globe being rectified for London, as above, if the sun's place in the ecliptic, at the Winter solstice, (December 22.) be brought to the East side of the wooden horizon, it will point

to the letters S. E. for South-East; and on turning the globe, and bringing the sun's place to the West side of the horizon, it stands against the letters S. W. for South-West, which are the two points the sun rises and sets at on the 22d of December, or the Winter solstice. From whence it appears, that there is a space of 90 degrees, or one quarter of the globe difference, between the points the sun rises at in the middle of Summer and the middle of Winter.

When the sun is in Aries, or upon the equinoctial, it rises due East, and sets due West, to every place on the face of the earth; and then the days are 12 hours long all the world over.

There may be referred to this problem several other particulars, which are well worth the knowing.

First. When the sun's place is brought to the meridian, that degree of the equator cut by the meridian is called the *sun's right ascension*, which is to be reckoned from the vernal equinox.

Secondly. When the sun's place is brought to the horizon, that are thereof, contained between the degree opposite to the sun's place, and the East or West points, is called the *sun's amplitude*; if in the morning it is the amplitude at rising, in the evening it is called the amplitude at setting.

Thirdly. That degree of the equator which is cut by the horizon at sun-rising, is called the *oblique ascension*; at sun-setting, the *oblique descension*.

Fourthly. The difference between the number of degrees in the *right ascension* and *oblique ascension* is called the *sun's ascensional difference*, which is equal to the time that the sun rises before, or after, the hour of six; or sets after, or before, six in the evening.

Thus. At London, on the longest day; the solstitial point of Cancer brought to the meridian, the equator will be cut in the 90th degree for the sun's *right ascension*: the sun's place brought to the Eastern side of the horizon, the *amplitude* will be 40 degrees, and the *ascensional difference* will be 56 degrees.

Then the difference between the right ascension 90° and the ascensional difference 56°, is 34 degrees, which, at the rate of 15 degrees to an hour, gives 2 hours and 16 minutes; which reckoned before six in the morning, gives a quarter before 4 o'clock, for the time of the sun's rising.

A contrivance for the ready performance of the parts of this problem was some years since made, which is by a kind of calendar on a narrow slip of paper, and called an *analemma*, containing the months and days; and also the sun's declination for each day. This slip, which is somewhat longer than the breadth of the torrid zone, is on some globes pasted across the equator at the vernal equinox; so that the globe being rectified for the latitude, bring the analemma to the meridian, and the mid-day altitude will be obtained for any day of the year: for the day of the month and declination stand

against

against each other on the analemma; and opposite on the meridian is the declination also.

Then any day on the analemma brought to the Eastern edge of the horizon, the degree of the horizon standing against it is the amplitude at rising.

P R O B L E M XVIII.

Given the time when an eclipse of the sun or moon is to begin and end.

Required all those places on the earth to which the beginning, the middle, and the end of that eclipse is visible.

Example. The eclipse of the sun on the 4th of June 1769; which began about half an hour after 6 in the morning, and ended about half an hour after 8; the middle being at half an hour after 7, nearly at London.

Solution. Find the sun's place for that day; which is 13 1-half degrees in Gemini; bring it to the meridian, and there mark his declination, which is 22 1-half degrees North; and elevate the pole for that declination.

Bring London to the meridian, set the index to half an hour after 7 in the morning, and turn the globe till the hour-index points to XII at noon; then the place under the marked declination on the meridian will be the place where the sun is vertical at that time; which is in the peninsula of Cambaya in India, on the East coast of the Arabian sea.

And to all the parts then above the horizon the middle of that eclipse will be visible, which is all Europe, Asia, and Africa, part of Terra Australis and the North East parts of America above Hudson's bay; the parts under the meridian, namely, Nova Zembla, Siberia, Tartary, the borders of Persia and India, will observe the middle of the eclipse at their noon.

AGAIN. Let London be brought to the meridian, and the hour-index set to half an hour after 6 in the morning, the beginning of the eclipse, and let the globe be turned till the index stands at XII at noon;

Then all those places under the meridian will see the beginning of the eclipse at their noon; and all the places above the horizon will also see the beginning, but at different times of their day, according to their distance in longitude from the present meridian. To some parts of Africa on the coast of Guinea, to the South of Cape Verd, the beginning of the eclipse will be barely visible.

LASTLY. London being again brought to the meridian, and the hour-index set to half an hour after 8 o'clock, the time the eclipse ends at London, turn the globe till the index points to XII at noon; then at all the parts above the horizon may the end of the eclipse be seen, which includes Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Northernmost parts of America; but it being morning to them, and the sun so near the horizon, observations made there must be very imperfect; and so indeed must it happen to all places where the eclipse is seen near the horizon.

When this problem concerns an eclipse of the moon, as she is then

the sign directly opposite to the sun; therefore the opposite point of the ecliptic to the sun's place is to be found for the place of the moon.

Then the hour-index being fitted to the London time, as for the sun, let the moon's place be brought to the meridian, and the pole elevated for her declination, and all the places where the beginning, middle, and end are visible, may be seen in the same manner as for eclipses of the sun.

Of different Ways by which some People reckon Time.

The Italians begin their days at sun-set. Then;

To find the Italic hour at any given place and time,

Find the time of sun-setting for that place and time.

Suppose the sun sets at seven of the clock;

They begin to reckon from 7, and go on to 24; for the Italians do not divide their days into twice 12 hours.

Then at 7 in the morning, by our reckoning, it would be 12 with them; and at 12 with us, it would be 17 with them: and so on.

The Babylonians began their day at sun-rise.

To find the Babylonian hour at any time,

Find at what hour the sun rose at Babylon on the given day.

Begin to count the hours from thence, and make allowance for the time or difference of longitude, which Babylon is to the Eastward of us.

The ancient Jews, in reckoning their time, divided the day into 12 hours, and the night into as many; which hours proved every day unequal in extent, (except in places under the equator,) as they increased or decreased according to the season of the year. Therefore;

To find the Jewish hour at a given place and time,

Find the length of the day and of the night at that time and place.

Then as the length of this day, or night, is in proportion to 12; so are any number of hours of that day, or night, to the fourth proportional, which is the Judaic hour of the day, or night, required.

Seamen begin their day at noon, that being the time when they settle the preceding day's reckoning.

Astronomers also begin their day at noon, and reckon on to 24 hours, to the next day at noon.

Some of the truths established in the preceding pages are collected together under the two following heads of theorems and paradoxes; and may be useful to beginners as exercises to their memory and judgment.

G E O.

GEOGRAPHICAL THEOREMS,

O R,

TRUE ASSERTIONS.

I. RELATING TO LATITUDE.

1. **P** LACES lying under the equator have no latitude ;
Because the reckoning of latitude begins at the equator.
2. Under the poles of the equator the latitude is greatest, or is 90 degrees ;
Because the reckoning of latitude ends at the poles.
3. Going from the equator towards the poles the latitude increases ;
But going towards the equator the latitude diminishes.
4. The greater the latitude is of any place the farther it is distant from the equator.
5. The latitude of any place is equal to the height of the pole above the horizon.
6. The elevation of the equator above the horizon is equal to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.
7. The difference of latitude, of all places between the poles, must be less than 180 degrees.

II. RELATING TO LONGITUDE.

8. Places lying under that meridian which is accounted the first have no longitude ;
Because the reckoning of longitude begins at that meridian.
9. Those places have the greatest longitude which lye under the meridian, opposite to that where longitude begins.
10. Two places cannot have a difference of longitude above 180 degrees, one being in East longitude and the other in West longitude.
11. That place under the equator cut by the first meridian has neither latitude nor longitude.

12. No two places can be distant from one another above 180 degrees;

Because 180 degrees is half the circumference of a great circle.

13. As a traveller changes his place he changes his zenith and sensible horizon.

14. Travelling in an oblique direction between the meridian and parallel of latitude, the successive places come to will have different latitudes and longitudes.

III. RELATING TO TIME.

15. All the inhabitants of the earth do enjoy the sun's light an equal length of time, and have him equally absent from them.

16. Under the equinoctial the lengths of the days and nights are always equal to 12 hours, but are not so in any other place.

17. In all places between the equator and the poles the days and nights are never equal but at the time of the equinoxes.

18. The difference between the lengths of the days and nights in any place is greater in proportion as the latitude of that place is greater.

19. All the people living under the same parallel of latitude have the same length of days and nights at the same time of the year.

20. All places at equal distances from the equator on each side thereof have the same lengths of days and nights, but at different seasons of the year.

21. To all places under the same semicircle of the meridian, on the North and South of the equator, it is noon, or midnight, or any other hour of the day, or night, at the same time precisely.

22. Places to the Eastward of any other place have their morning, noon, and evening hours earlier than at that place to the Westward; reckoning one hour for every 15 degrees of Easting.

23. Places to the Westward of any other place have their morning, noon, and evening hours later than at that place to the Eastward; reckoning one hour for every 15 degrees of Westing.

24. In all places between the equator and the North pole the longest day and shortest night is always when the sun hath the greatest Northern declination, and the shortest day and longest night when he hath the greatest Southern declination.

25. In all places between the equator and the South pole the longest day and shortest night is always when the sun hath the greatest Southern declination, and the shortest day and longest night when he hath the greatest Northern declination.

26. In all places exactly under the polar circles the sun appears every day at his greatest declination for one whole day without setting, and entirely disappears another whole day; but daily rises and sets in those places at all other times as elsewhere.

27. In all places of the frigid zones the sun appeareth every year without setting for a certain number of days, and disappears for about the same space of time. And the nearer unto, or the farther from, the pole those places are, the longer, or shorter, is his presence in, or absence from, the same.

28. Three or more places being taken on the same side of the equator, having equal distances between their parallels of latitude, the lengths of the longest days in those places do not exceed one another in the same proportion as the latitudes of those places do exceed one another.

29. Three or more places being taken on the same side of the equator, in which the length of the longest days do equally increase, the distance between the parallels of latitude of those places is not equal.

30. A person in going Eastward quite round the globe will have gained one day in his reckoning of time above the account kept at the place he departed from; but, had his circuit been made Westward, he would have been one day behind the account kept at that place.

31. Two persons setting out at the same time from a place, to make the circuit of the globe, one going Eastward, the other Westward, will on their return differ in their account of time by two entire days.

IV. RELATING TO THE POSITION OF THE SUN.

32. To all places within the torrid zone the sun is vertical twice a year; to those under the tropics, once; but is never vertical to those in the temperate or frigid zones.

33. That person to whom the sun is vertical has no length of shadow at that time.

34. On the days of the equinoxes the people who live under the line, or equator, have the sun due East all the forenoon when their shadows are projected Westward; and have the sun due West all the afternoon when their shadows are projected Eastward.

35. People who live to the North of the torrid zone see the sun due South at noon, and those who live to the South of the torrid zone see the sun due North at noon.

36. Those who see the sun to the Northward have their shadows projected Southward, but when they see the sun to the Southward their shadows are projected Northward.

37. The less the latitude the shorter is the mid-day shadow, and the greater the latitude the longer is the mid-day shadow of the same person, when he is without the torrid zone; but within the torrid zone, the nearer the sun is to the zenith the shorter is the shadow at noon, and the farther from zenith at noon the longer is the shadow: And this distinction holds good every where.

38. In all places situate in a parallel sphere the circle of the sun's diurnal motion runs always parallel, or nearly so, to the respective horizon of such place, which is only at the poles.

39. In all places situate in a right sphere the circle of the sun's diurnal motion is perpendicular, or nearly so, to the respective horizon of such places, which must be at the equator.

40. In all places situate in an oblique sphere the circle of the sun's diurnal motion is always oblique unto, or cutteth the horizon of such place at unequal angles: This oblique position answers to every place between the equator and the poles.

41. On the days of the equinoxes only the sun rises in the East point of the horizon, and sets in the West point to every place on the earth.

42. To places in North latitude the sun rises to the Northward of the East, and sets to the Northward of the West, from the vernal to the autumnal equinox; and rises to the Southward of the East, and sets to the Southward of the West, from the time of the autumnal equinox to that of the vernal.

43. The farther places are removed from the equator, not surpassing the polar circles, the greater is the sun's *amplitude*, (see Art. 161): And the greatest amplitude is on the days of the Summer and Winter solstices.

44. In all places of the torrid zone the morning and evening twilight is least, in the frigid zones it is greatest, and in the temperate zones the twilight is a medium between the other two.

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A Short Abridgment of Universal History.

S E C T. IV.

THE most ancient records we have are those in the scriptures. No historian, either Greek or Roman, comes near the antiquity of Moses; nor are their accounts in the smallest degree to be compared with his, either for accuracy or probability, though we should put divine inspiration entirely out of the question.

The scripture mentions no very remarkable event which happened from the fall of man to the flood; only, that, during this period, the world advanced to an extraordinary height of wickedness, inso-much that God himself would no longer bear their iniquities, but destroyed them at once by this terrible calamity, saving only one family from the general destruction.

Concerning this event, which happened in the year of the world 1656, we have only some very confused accounts and fables in ancient poets and historians, nor was it until long after that any history upon which we can have any dependence commenced; and even these fabulous accounts seem to have been entirely borrowed from divine revelation.

The three sons of Noah, Shem, Ham, and Japhet, being as it were the three founders of the human race, it is no wonder to find that they should be worshipped by their idolatrous descendants.

Though the descendants of Shem would, no doubt, have been as ready as others to pay him an idolatrous worship, yet, the knowledge of the true God, continuing in that family, all along prevented them; and we never hear of any kind of homage being paid to him by the Jews; but Japhet, among the Greeks, and Ham, among the Egyptians, were long revered as deities, under the names of *Jupiter*, and *Jupiter-Ammon*.

The first kingdom mentioned in history is that of Nimrod, who founded Babylon, about 2640 years before Christ.

Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Assur; and in Egypt, the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. That these events should have happened so soon after the deluge, whatever surprise it may have occasioned to the learned, some centuries ago, need not in the smallest degree excite the wonder of the present age. We have seen, from many instances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how speedily mankind increase when the generative faculty lies under no restraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extensive than those of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during this early age; and yet these kingdoms are not supposed to have existed four centuries before the discovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to separate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obscured. This occasioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a chosen people,

2026. people. From this period the history of ancient nations begins a little to expand itself; and we learn several particulars of very considerable importance.

Mankind had not long been united into societies before they set themselves to oppress and destroy one another. Chaderlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Persians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, must not have been very considerable, since, in one of these expeditions, Abraham, assisted only by his household, set upon him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the spoil that had been taken. Abraham was soon after obliged, by a famine, to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to settle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occasion to Moses to mention some particulars with regard to the Egyptians, and every stroke discovers the character of an improved and powerful nation. The particular governments into which this country was divided, are now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, is become the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been so justly admired for their wisdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many successive princes, who laboured for their establishment and perfection. But in 1833. the time of Jacob, the first principles of civil order and regular governments seem to have been tolerably understood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into several districts or separate departments; councils, composed of experienced and select persons, were established for the management of public affairs; granaries for preserving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in this age, enjoyed a commerce far from inconsiderable. These facts, though of an ancient date, deserve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements, both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the present inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained separate for several centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, till the time of Ninus king of Nineveh, who, by the splendour of his actions, reflects light on this dark history. Fired by the spirit of conquest, he extends the bounds of his kingdom, adds Babylon to his dominion, and lays the foundation of that monarchy which, under the name of the Assyrian empire, kept Asia under the yoke for many ages.

The history of Europe now begins to dawn. Javan, son of Japhet, and grandson of Noah, is the stock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are descended. Javan established himself in the islands on the Western coast of Asia Minor, from whence it was impossible that some wanderers should not escape over into Europe. To these first inhabitants succeeded a colony from Egypt, who, about the time of Abraham, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to establish monar-

chy in this country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans soon fell asunder; and the ancient Greeks, who were at this time the most rude and barbarous people in the world, again fell back into their lawless and savage manner of life. Several colonies, however, soon after passed over from Asia into Greece, and by remaining in that country, produced a more considerable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The most ancient of these were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former settled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know extremely little of Ogyges or his successors. Those of Inachus endeavoured to unite the dispersed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpose were not altogether unsuccessful.

But the history of God's chosen people is the only one with which we are much acquainted during those ages. The train of curious events which occasioned the settling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tannis was the capital, are universally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint version, 1794 years before Christ. This is a pretty remark-¹⁷⁹⁴able æra with respect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks considered as altogether unknown, and which they have disfigured by their fabulous narrations.

It is a common error among writers on this subject, to consider all the nations of antiquity as being on the same footing with regard to laws, manners, and learning. They find some nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in that situation. They discover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wisdom of the first ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in points of art and refinement, as between the civilized kingdoms of modern Europe, and the Indians in America, or Negroes on the coast of Africa. Noah was, undoubtedly, acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world; these he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their posterity. Those nations therefore who settled nearest the original seat of mankind, and who had the best opportunities to avail themselves of the knowledge which their great ancestor was possessed of, early formed themselves into regular societies, and made considerable improvements in the arts which are most subservient to human life.

Agriculture appears to have been known in the first ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the instruments of husbandry, long before the discovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the sacred writings. It is hardly to be supposed that the ancient cities, both in Asia and Egypt, whose foundation, as we have already mentioned, ascends to the remotest antiquity, could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations who live by hunting or pasturage only, lead a wandering life, and seldom fix their residence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture; and though we cannot

cannot trace the steps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached passages in sacred writ, ascertain the progress which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the history of civil society, that the commercial intercourse between men must be pretty considerable, before the metals come to be considered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the case even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which establish this fact, that the use of money had not been of an ancient date; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness: and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave silver, the metal is weighed in presence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this sort became more common, this practice went into disuse, and the quantity of silver was ascertained by a particular mark, which saved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the second from Abraham. The *resilab*, of which we read of in his time, was a piece of money, stamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a precise and stated value. It appears from the history of Joseph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Ismaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, resembling the modern caravans, who carried spices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The same observations may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the best chronology, was a native of Arabia Felix, and cotemporary with Jacob. He speaks of the roads of Tema and Saba, *i. e.* of the caravans who set out from those cities to Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of this country were rather the luxuries than the conveniences of life, we shall have reason to conclude, that the countries into which they were sent for sale, and particularly Egypt, were considerably improved in arts and refinement; for people do not think of luxuries until the useful arts have made high advancement among them.

In speaking of commerce, we ought carefully to distinguish between the species of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by sea; which last kind of traffick is both later in its origin, and slower in its progress. Those who settled on the coast of Palestine were the first people of the world among whom navigation was made subservient to commerce; they were distinguished by a word which in the Hebrew tongue signifies merchants, and are the same nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they set themselves to better their situation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object; and with all the writers of Pagan antiquity they pass for the inventors of whatever is subservient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his last words to his children: and if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of such remote antiquity, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, suppose the knowledge of several others: astronomy, for instance, or a know-
ledge

ledge of the situation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies; is necessary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and so of other arts. In fact, we find that, before the death of Jacob, several nations were so well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to measure by them the duration of their year. It had been an universal custom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide them into the portion of a week, or seven days: this undoubtedly arose from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for those nations who led a pastoral life, or who lived under a serene sky, to observe, that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks; hence the division of a month. Those people again who lived by agriculture, and who had got among them the division of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of these brought back the same temperature of the air, or the same seasons: hence the origin of what is called the lunar year, which has every where taken place in the infancy of science. This, together with the observation of the fixed stars, which study, as we learn from the book of Job, must have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the discovery of the solar year, which at that time would be thought an immense improvement in astronomy. But with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered that they were peculiar to the Egyptians and a few nations of Asia. Europe offers a frightful spectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeness and every elegant art, were descended from a savage race of men, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and sometimes to one another? This, however, was no more than what was to be expected. The descendants of Noah, who removed at a great distance from the plains of Sennaar, lost all connections with the civilized part of mankind. Their posterity became still more ignorant; and the human mind was at length sunk into an abyss of misery and wretchedness.

We might naturally expect, that, from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and Assyria would emerge from their obscurity: this, however, is far from being the case; we only get a glimpse of them, and they disappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninus, who succeeded Ninus in the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the history of this empire for no less than ^{2122.} eight hundred years. The silence of ancient history on this subject is commonly attributed to the softness and effeminacy of the successors of Ninus, whose lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns of a wise prince pass unobserved and unrecorded. Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is supposed about this time to have mounted the throne of Egypt. By his assiduity and attention, the civil and military establishments of the Egyptians received very considerable improvements. Egypt, in the time of Sesostris and his immediate successors, was, in all probability, the most powerful kingdom upon earth; and, according to

the best calculation, is supposed to have contained twenty-seven millions of inhabitants. But ancient history often excites, without gratifying our curiosity; for from the reign of Sesostris to that of Boccharis, we know not even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumstances, the country must still have continued in a very flourishing condition, for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into distant nations. Athens, that seat of learning and politeness, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece, with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilize the rough manners of its original inhabitants. From the institutions which Cecrops established among the Athenians, it is easy to infer in what situations they must have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are so barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beasts of the field, were propagated by accidental rencounters, and without all knowledge of those to whom they owed their generation. Cranaus, who succeeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, pursued the same beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wise institutions, to bridle the keen passions of a rude people.

Whilst these princes used their endeavours for civilizing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the East, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphiction, one of those uncommon geniusses who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of posterity, to think of some expedient by which he might unite in one plan of politics the several independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from those intestine divisions which must render them a prey to one another, or to the first enemy who might think proper to invade them. These reflections he communicated to the kings or leaders of the different territories, and by his eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preservation. Two deputies from each of these cities assembled twice a-year at Thermopylae, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictionic counsel. In this assembly, whatever related to the general interest of the confederacy was discussed and finally determined. Amphiction likewise, sensible that those political connections are the most lasting which are strengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictions the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of those who consulted the oracle, had been amassed in it. This assembly, constituted on such solid foundations, was the great spring of action in Greece, while that country preserved its independence; and by the union which it inspired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties against all the force of the Persian empire.

Considering the circumstances of the age, in which it was instituted, the Amphictionic council is perhaps the most remarkable political establishment which ever took place among mankind. The Greek States, who formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual

mutual inroads and hostilities, soon began to act with concert, and to undertake distant expeditions for the general interest of the community. The first of these was the obscure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. ^{1291.} The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine sea, and to establish colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ship *Argo*, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer, and other ancient writers, that several sail were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of those who conducted it, long tossed about upon different coasts. The rocks, at some distance from the mouth of the Euxine sea, occasioned great labour: they sent forward a light vessel, which passed through, but returned with the loss of her rudder. This is expressed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their sending out a bird which returned with the loss of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obscurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at *Æon*, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, considering the mean condition of the naval art during this age, was not less considerable than the circum-navigation of the world by our modern discoverers. From this expedition, to that against Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, ^{1218.} who had been carried off by Paris, son of the Trojan king, the Greeks must have made a wonderful progress in power and opulence: no less than twelve hundred vessels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. These vessels, however, were but half decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their construction. If we add to these circumstances, that the Greeks had not the use of the saw, an instrument so necessary to the carpenter, a modern must form but a mean notion of the strength or elegance of this fleet.

There appears originally to have been great resemblance between the political situation of the different kingdoms of Greece. ^{1260.} They were governed each by a king, or rather chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who presided in the administration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans or tribes was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with one another, and sometimes with their sovereign. Such a situation was in all respects extremely unfavourable; each particular state being in miniature what the whole country had been before the time of Amphiction. The history of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which these States, which, for want of union, were weak and insignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theseus, king of Attica, had required a flourishing reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He ^{1257.} saw the inconveniencies to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed, and he conceived, that by means of the influence which his personal character, united to the royal authority

authority with which he was invested, had universally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpose he endeavoured to maintain and even to increase his popularity among the peasants and artisans: he detached, as much as possible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them: he abolished the courts which had been established in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theseus, however, did not trust solely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by establishing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither strangers from all quarters, by the prospect of protection and privileges, he raised this city from an inconsiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The splendor of Athens and Theseus now totally eclipsed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the State was united in one city, and under one sovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occasioned so much confusion, by being divested of all influence and consideration, became humble and submissive; and Attica remained under the peaceful government of a monarch.

This sketch of the origin of the first monarchy, of which we have a distinct account, may, without much variation, be applied to the other States of Greece. This country, however, did not long continue under the government of kings. Theseus had divided the Athenians into three distinct classes, viz. nobles, artisans, and husbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he bestowed many privileges on the two other ranks of persons. This plan of politics was followed by his successors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their sovereign, and partly from the progress of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became considerable and independent. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, the citizens, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himself to death for the safety of his people, abolished the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter should be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was so much the more remarkable, as it happened almost at the same time that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and desired a mortal sovereign, that they might be like unto other nations.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian States, much about the same time, assumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. The last sovereign being overcome in single combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans abolished the regal power; but till the days of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of seven hundred years, they performed nothing worthy of the republican spirit. Other cities of Greece, after the examples of Thebes and Athens, erected themselves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival States, which by means of the superiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deserve

deserve our principal attention. The Athenians, by abolishing the name of king, did not entirely subvert the regal authority: they established a perpetual magistrate, who, under the name of Archon, was invested with almost the same rights which their kings had enjoyed. In time, however, they became sensible that the archontic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free State. After it had continued therefore three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to lessen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by shortening its duration. The first period assigned for the continuance of the archonship in the same hands, was three years. But the desire of the Athenians for a more perfect system of freedom than had hitherto been established, increased in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again called out for a fresh reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined, that nine annual magistrates should be appointed for this office, chosen by the people, and accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office.

No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens, and it was impossible that the ancient customs of the realm, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished, by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuary spirits of the Athenians, in the first flutter of their independence. This engaged the wiser part of the State, who began to prefer any system of government to their present anarchy and confusion, to cast their eyes on Draco, a man of an austere but virtuous disposition, as the fittest person for composing a system of law, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office, but executed it with so much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient historian, "His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again returned into confusion and disorder, and remained so till the time of Solon. The gentle manners, disinterested virtue, and wisdom by which this sage was distinguished, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the most important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, though this employment was assigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he should undertake it. At length, however, he was determined by motives of public utility, preferable to all considerations of private ease, safety, and reputation; and the first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, except those relating to murder. He next proceeded to new-model the political law; and his establishments on this head remained among the Athenians while they preserved their liberties. He divided the citizens into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed, and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the last resort. But lest this assembly, composed of all the citizens, should be exposed to folly, tumult, and disorder, he provided for its safety by the Senate and Areopagus. The first of these courts consisted of four hundred persons, a hundred out of each tribe of the

the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the assembly of the people; the second, though but a court of justice, gained a prodigious ascendant in the republic, by the wisdom and gravity of its members, who were not chosen but after the strictest scrutiny, and most serious deliberation.

Upon the same plan most of the other ancient republics were established; but the government of Sparta, or Lacedemon, had something in it very peculiar. Like the other states of Greece, it was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the jurisdiction of its own immediate chieftain. At length, two brothers, Euristhenes and Procles, getting possession of ^{1072.} this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and their posterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjointly for nine hundred years. The Spartan government, however, did not take ^{870.} that singular form which renders it so remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legislator. The plan of policy devised by Lycurgus, agreed with that already described in comprehending a senate and assembly of the people, and in general in all those establishments which are deemed most requisite for the security of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whose office was hereditary, though their power was sufficiently circumscribed by proper checks and restraints. But the great characteristic of the Spartan constitution arose from this, that in all his laws, Lycurgus had at least as much respect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all sorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in short, which had the smallest tendency to soften the minds of the Spartans, was absolutely proscribed. They were forbid the use of money, they lived at public tables on the coarsest fare, the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the more advanced in years; and all ranks, capable to bear arms, were daily accustomed to the most painful exercises. To the Spartans alone war was a relaxation, rather than a hardship, and they behaved in it with a spirit of which none but a Spartan could even form a conception.

But in order to see the effect of these principles, and to connect the history of the different quarters of the globe, we must now take notice of Asia, and observe the events which happened in those great empires, of which we have so long lost sight. We have ^{762.} already mentioned in what obscurity the history of Egypt is ^{528.} involved, until the reign of Baccharis. From this period, to the dissolution of their government, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wisdom of their laws and political institutions, than for the power of their arms. The great empire of Assyria likewise, which had so long disappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the first instance we meet with in history, of a kingdom which fell asunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakness of its sovereigns. Sardanapalus, the last emperor of ^{767.} Assyria, neglecting the administration of affairs, and shutting himself up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his subjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay

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hold of this opportunity of raising their own fortune on the ruins of their master's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belshis, governor of Babylon, conspired against their sovereign, set fire to his capital, and divided between them his extensive dominions. These two kingdoms, sometimes united under one prince, and sometimes governed each by a particular sovereign, maintained the chief sway in Asia, till Cyrus the Great reduced this quarter of the world under the Persian yoke. 536.

The taste for the great and magnificent seems to have been the prevailing character of the Eastern nations; and they principally displayed it in their works of architecture. There are no vestiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the testimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works, which adorned Babylon and Nineveh; neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finished. There are three pyramids still remaining in Egypt, at some leagues distance from Cairo, which are supposed to have been the burying-places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largest is five hundred feet in height, and two thousand six hundred and forty broad each way at bottom. It was a superstition among this people, derived from the earliest times, that even after death, the soul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the custom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body such vegetables as experience had discovered to be the greatest preservatives against putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the same view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as these superstitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably secure a safe, and comfortable retreat for their souls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the East, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that indeed they were superb and magnificent structures, but totally devoid of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the constructing of vaults. The arts, in which these nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were sculpture and embroidery. As to the sciences, they had all along continued to bestow their principal attention on astronomy. It does not appear, however, that they made great progress in explaining the causes of the phenomena of the universe, or indeed in any species of natural and sound philosophy. To demonstrate this to an intelligent reader, it is sufficient to observe, that according to the testimony of sacred and profane writers, the absurd reveries of magic and astrology, which always decrease in proportion to the advancement of true sciences, were in high esteem among them, during the latest periods of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and afforded without much labour all the necessaries, and even luxuries of life. They had long been accustomed to a civilized and polished life in great cities. These circumstances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an easy prey to the Persians, a nation just emerging from barbarity, and, of consequence, brave and warlike. This was still more easy in the infancy of the military art: when strength and courage were the only circumstances which gave the advantage

advantage to one nation over another, when, properly speaking, there were no fortified places, which, in modern times, have been discovered to be so useful in stopping the progress of a victorious enemy, and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire.

The monarchs who succeeded Cyrus gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exercise these virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's institutions: Athens had just recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was their situation, when the lust of universal empire, which never fails to tor-

ment the breast of tyrants, led Darius to send forth his numerous armies into Greece. But the Persians were no longer those invincible soldiers, who, under Cyrus, had conquered Asia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and servitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whose minds were nobly animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thousand Athenians, overcame the Persian army of a hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand cavalry. His countrymen, Themistocles and Aristides, the first celebrated for his abilities, the second for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general.

Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, with 484. two million one hundred thousand men, and being every where defeated by sea and land, escaped to Asia in a fishing boat. Such was the spirit of the Greeks.

But though the Persian war concluded gloriously for the 463. Greeks, it is, in a great measure, to this war, that the subsequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. They became haughty after their victories: delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another: their quarrels were fomented by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted 431. as principals, and drew after them the other States of Greece. They continued to weaken themselves, by these intestine divisions, till Philip, king of Macedon, (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful,) rendered himself the absolute master of

Greece, by the battle of Cheronæa. But this conquest is one 338. of the first we meet with in history, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his schemes so deep, and by bribery, promises, and intrigues, gained over such a number of considerable persons in the several States of Greece to his interest, that another day would have put in his possession what Cheronæa had denied him. The Greeks had lost that virtue which was the basis of their confederacy. Their popular governments served only to give a sanction to their licentiousness and corruption. The principal orators, in most of their States, were bribed into the service of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demosthenes, assisted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more seductive arts of his op-

ponents.

ponents, who, by flattering the people, used the surest method of winning their affections.

Philip had proposed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long survive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his decease, his son Alexander was chosen general against the Persians, by all the Grecian states, except the Athenians and Thebans. These, especially the latter, made an effort for liberty; but Thebes was taken, and the inhabitants terribly slaughtered by Alexander. Secure on the side of Greece, he set out on his Persian expedition, at the head of thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse. With this army he conquered the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles; over-ran and subdued, not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, the very names of which had never reached an European ear; and soon after this rapid career of victory and success, died at Babylon. His captains, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided 323. among them his dominions.

From the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, all the arts were carried to the highest pitch of perfection. Though the Eastern nations had raised magnificent and stupendous structures, the Greeks were the first people in the world who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Ephesian Diana, are the first monuments of good taste. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who settled in Asia minor before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias 448. the Athenian, is the first sculptor whose works have been immortal. Zeuxis Parrhasius, and Timantheus, during the same age, first discovered the power of the pencil, and brought painting to perfection. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Homer, the tragic poets Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the first considerable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave simplicity and elegance to prosaic writings; Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony, but it was left to Thucydides and Demosthenes, to discover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not however in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy was cultivated among them with the utmost success. Not to mention Socrates, his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be put on a footing with the writings of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which these philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could divine. But whatever some vain empirics in learning may pretend, the most learned and ingenious men, both in France and in England, have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expression. But the Greeks were not less distinguished for their activity than for their speculative talents, as appears from the number of their famous statesmen and warriors. War was first reduced into a science by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardor for glory, and not from

from a dread of their superiors; the cause of which was the wise laws which Amphiction, Solon, and Lycurgus, had established. But we must now leave this nation, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are still more interesting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they stand to those of modern Europe.

753. Romulus, the founder of the Roman State, was at first the leader of a few lawless and wandering banditti. His disposition was extremely martial; and the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts, afforded a noble field for the display of military talents. He was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours, and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandize themselves, but even to subsist. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may observe the same maxims by which the Romans afterwards became masters of the world. Instead of destroying the nations he had subjected, he united them to the Roman State, whereby Rome acquired a new accession of strength from every war she undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumstance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies with which he contended had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any considerable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the use of that weapon, and improved the military system of the Romans, by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both these maxims, by means of which the Roman State arrived at such a pitch of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Romans, instantly threw aside the latter, and made use of the Sabine buckler in fighting against other states. Though principally attached to war, he did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant-kingdom. He instituted what was called the senate, a court originally composed of a hundred persons, distinguished for their wisdom and experience. He enacted laws for the administration of justice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly passions of his followers; and, after a long reign, spent in promoting the civil or military interests of his country, was, according to the best conjecture, treacherously put to death by 715. the members of that senate which he himself had instituted.

Numa, who came next to him, established the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inspired them with that veneration for an oath which was ever after the soul of their military discipline. His successors Tullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priscus, Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign, for the grandeur of Rome; but Tarquinius Superbus, the seventh and last king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to support it by the most cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the insolence of his son Sextus Tarquinius, who, by dishonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occasioned the expulsion of the Tarquin family, and 510. with it the dissolution of the regal government. As the Romans however were continually engaged in war, they found it necessary to have some officer invested with supreme authority, who might conduct

duſt them to the field, and regulate their military enterprizes. In the room of the kings therefore they appointed two annual magiſtrates, called Conſuls, who, without creating the ſame jealousy, ſucceeded to all the power of their ſovereigns. This revolution was extremely favourable to the Roman grandeur. The conſuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were deſirous of ſignalizing their reign by ſome great action: each vied with thoſe who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out againſt ſome new enemy. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inſpired to deeds of valour by every conſideration which could excite them: that the citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, we need not be ſurpriſed, that they ſhould, in the courſe of ſome centuries, extend their power all over Italy. 264.

The Romans now met with a powerful rival in the Carthagenians. This ſtate had been founded on the coaſt of the Mediterranean in Africa, ſome time before Rome, by a colony of Phenicians, and, according to the practice of their mother country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatneſs.

Carthage, in this deſign, had proved wonderfully ſucceſſful. She now commanded both ſides of the Mediterranean. Beſides that of Africa, which ſhe almoſt entirely poſſeſſed, ſhe had extended herſelf on the Spaniſh ſide, through the Streights. Thus miſtreſs of the ſea and of commerce, ſhe had ſeized on the iſlands of Corſica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itſelf; and the Romans were too nearly threatened not to take up arms. Hence a ſucceſſion of hoſtilities between theſe rival States, known in hiſtory by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic, when Rome was a truckling ſtate; but ſhe was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political conſtitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was compoſed of ſoldiers. The firſt war with Carthage taught the Romans the art of fighting on the ſea, with which they had hitherto been unacquainted. A Carthaginian veſſel wrecked on their coaſts; they uſed it for a model, in three months fitted out a fleet, and the Conſul Duilius, who fought their firſt naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpoſe to mention all the tranſactions of theſe wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the ſpirit which then animated this people. Being taken priſoner in Africa, he is ſent back on his parole to negotiate a change of priſoners. He maintains in the ſenate, the propriety of that law, which cut off from thoſe who ſuffered themſelves to be taken, all hopes of being ſaved, and returns to a certain death. 260.
255.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal the Carthaginian was the moſt inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred againſt the Romans, and having ſettled the intestine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inſpire his ſon, though but nine years old, with

his own sentiments. For this purpose, he ordered a solemn sacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his son to the altar, asked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition against the Romans; the courageous boy not only consented to go, but conjured his father by the gods present, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will swear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied, and the solemnity of the ceremony, and the sacredness of the oath, made such an impression upon his mind, as

220. nothing could ever afterwards efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he crosses the Ebro, the Pyrenees, the Alps, and falls down upon Italy. The loss of four battles threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily sides with the conqueror.

212. Hieronymus, king of Syracuse, declares against the Romans, and almost all Italy abandons them. In this extremity Rome owed its preservation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, despising popular clamour, and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The strength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raises the siege of Nola, takes Syracuse, and revives the drooping spirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of these great men, but saw something greater in the young Scipio. The success of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converse with the

210. gods. At the age of twenty-four, he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle lost their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the first assault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings submit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and sees her armies defeated. Hannibal, sixteen years victorious, is in vain called home

202. to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, gives hostages, and engages never to enter upon a war, but with the consent of the Roman people.

After the conquest of Carthage, Rome had inconsiderable wars but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconsiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander the Great. Their scene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the East. The States of Greece had once more disengaged themselves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Achæans, and Beotians; each of these was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. Of them all the Etolians were the most considerable. The kings of Macedon maintained that superiority, which, in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally possessed over his less powerful neighbours. Philip, the present monarch, had rendered himself odious to the Greeks, by some unpopular and tyrannical steps; the Etolians were most irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their assistance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garrisons were obliged to evacuate Greece;

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the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the States of Greece became their dependents. The Etolians, discovering their first error, endeavoured to remedy it by another, still more dangerous to themselves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them against Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them against the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourse to the same prince, who was at this time the most powerful of the East, and the successor to the dominions of Alexander in Asia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice so much as that of the Etolians; for instead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be most vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a small body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Asia. In this war the Romans made use of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now pursue Antiochus, the last object of their resentment, into Asia, and having vanquished him by sea and land, compel him to submit to an infamous treaty. In these conquests the Romans still allowed the ancient inhabitants to possess their territory; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people, which, however, under a specious name, concealed the most servile of all conditions, and inferred, that they should submit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on these easy conquests, we have reason to be astonished at the resistance which the Romans met with from a barbarous prince, Mithridates, king of Pontus. This monarch, however, had great resources. His kingdom, bordering on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, abounded in a race of men, whose minds were not enervated by pleasure, and whose bodies were firm and vigorous.

The different states of Greece and Asia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not spirit to shake it off, were transported at finding a prince, who dared to shew himself an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully submitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was compelled to yield to the superior valour of the Romans. Vanquished successively by Sylla and Lucullus; he was at length subdued by Pompey, and stripped of his dominions and of his life. In Africa the Roman arms met with equal success. Marius in conquering Jugurtha, made all secure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonensis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and other Northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The same Marius, whose name was so terrible in Africa, made the North of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians retired to their wilds and deserts, less formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome conquered the world, there subsisted an internal war within her walls. This war had subsisted from the first periods of the government. Rome, after the expulsion of her kings, enjoyed but a nominal liberty. The descendants of the senators, who were distinguished by the name of Patricians, were invested with so many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became

became determined to shake it off. A thousand disputes on this subject arose betwixt them and the Patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

These disputes, however, were not at first attended with any dangerous consequences. The Patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with some of their privileges to satisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the first offices of the State, and though they had the power of nomination, always named Patricians. But when the Romans, by the conquest of foreign nations became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements; when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the Eastern courts, and sported with every thing just and honourable, in order to obtain them, the State, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either side, to keep it together, became a prey to its own children: Hence the bloody seditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguishable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it easy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action against each other. The love of their country was now no more than a specious name; the better sort were too wealthy and effeminate to submit to the rigours of military discipline, and the soldiers, composed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They knew none but their commander; under his banner they fought, conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to imbrue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conquests, however, much requiring their keeping on foot several armies at the same time, retarded the subversion of the republic. These armies were so many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the soldiers of Sylla, Rome would have surrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæsar at length appears. By subduing the Gauls, he gained his country the most useful conquest it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharsalia. Cæsar victorious appears in a moment all over the world, in Egypt, in Asia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain, conqueror on all sides, he is acknowledged master at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Cassius think to give Rome her liberty, by stabbing him in the senate house. But they only subject her to tyrants, who, without his clemency or abilities, were not inferior in ambition. The republic falls into the hands of Mark Antony; young Cæsar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæsar, wrests it from him by the sea-fight at Actium; there is no Brutus nor Cassius to put an end to his life. The friends of liberty have killed themselves in despair; and Octavius, under the name of Augustus, and title of Emperor, remains the undisturbed master of the empire. During these civil commotions, the Romans still preserved the glory of their arms among distant nations, and while it was unknown who should be master at Rome, the Romans were without dispute the masters of the world; their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian,

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the Persian, the Greek, the Assyrian, and the Macedonian glory, and they were now only a name. No sooner therefore was Octavius established on the throne, than ambassadors from all quarters of the known world crowd to make their submissions. Æthiopia sues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a most formidable enemy, court his friendship; the Indies seek his alliance, Pannonia acknowledges him, Germany dreads him, and the Weser receives his laws. Victorious by sea and land, he shuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power, and Jesus Christ comes into the world.

24.
15.
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Having thus traced the progress of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, we shall now say a few words with regard to the arts, sciences, and manners of that people. During the first ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect, or rather contempt of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politics, and agriculture were the only arts they studied, because they were the only arts they esteemed. But upon the downfall of Carthage, having no enemy to dread from abroad, they began to taste the sweets of security, and to cultivate the arts. Their progress however was not gradual as in the other countries we have described. The conquest of Greece at once put them in possession of every thing most rare, curious, or elegant. Asia, which was the next victim, offered all its stores; and the Romans, from the most simple people, speedily became acquainted with the arts.

The Roman history now presents us with a set of monsters, under the name of Emperors, whose histories, a few excepted, disgrace human nature. They did not indeed abolish the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguished its liberties, and while they were practising the most unwarrantable cruelties upon their subjects, they themselves were the slaves of their soldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Augustus, became the most despotic empire that ever subsisted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only recal to our mind the situation of Turkey at present. It is of no importance therefore to consider the character of the emperors, since they had no power but what arose from a mercenary standing army, nor to enter into a detail with regard to the transactions of the court, which were directed by that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which universally prevail under a despotic government. When it is said that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant the civilized part of it, chiefly Greece, Carthage, and Asia. A more difficult task still remained for the emperors, to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though these countries had been discovered, they were not effectually subdued by the Roman generals. These nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the superiority of their discipline than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are described by Tacitus, and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is easy to discover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they submitted to a foreign yoke. From the obstinate resistance

sistence of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in subduing the other nations of Europe. The contests were on both sides bloody; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste, the inhabitants perished in the field, many were carried into slavery, and but a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. This situation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happiness of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourse with the Romans, acquired some taste for the arts, sciences, language, and manners, of their new masters. These, however, were but miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of their arms, for being over-awed by mercenary soldiers kept in pay to restrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumstance which could support them under these complicated calamities, was the hope of seeing better days.

The Roman empire, now stretched out to such an extent, contained within itself the seeds of dissolution; and the violent irruption of the Goths and Vandals, and other Barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various provinces of Germany, which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries of the North of Europe, and North-West of Asia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian Empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country, by that restlessness which actuates the minds of Barbarians, and makes them rove from home in quest of plunder, or new settlements. The first invaders met with a powerful resistance from the superior discipline of the Roman legions; but this, instead of daunting men of a strong and impetuous temper, only roused them to vengeance. They return to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniencies and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or blessed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they had fought, of the friends they had lost, and warm them with resentment against their opponents. Great bodies of armed men, with their wives and children, and slaves and flocks, issued forth, like regular colonies, in quest of new settlements. New adventures followed them. The lands which they deserted were occupied by more remote tribes of Barbarians. These, in their turn, pushed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increasing, rolled on, and swept every thing before them. Wherever the Barbarians marched, their rout was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred and what was profane. They respected no age, or sex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period, in the history of the world during which, the condition of the human race was most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great, A. D. 395, to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The contemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, labour, and are at a loss for expressions to describe the horror of it.

The scourge of God, the destroyer of nations, are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders.

Constantine, who was emperor about the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Christianity, changed the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople. This occasioned a prodigious alteration. The Western and Eastern provinces were separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the East, threw down the Western barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Rome (now known by the name of the Western Empire, in contradistinction to Constantinople, which, from its situation, was called the Eastern Empire) weakened by this division, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, sits down on the throne of the Cæsars. These irruptions into the empire were gradual and successive. The immense fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages, and several centuries were employed in demolishing it. The ancient discipline of the Romans, in military affairs, was so efficacious, that the remains of it descended to their successors, and must have proved an over-match for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the universal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loss to find new provocatives. The most distant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exercised, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite dish. The tyranny, and the universal deprivation of manners that prevailed upon the Emperors, or, as they are called, Cæsars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of those nations who overcame them.

Towards the close of the sixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were masters of the Southern, and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarcely any vestige of the Roman policy, jurisprudence, arts, or literature remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dresses, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period till the sixteenth century, Europe exhibited a picture of most melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, science, taste, were words scarce in use during these ages. Persons of the highest rank, and in the most eminent stations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not understand the breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; some of them could scarce read it. The human mind neglected, uncultivated, and depressed, sunk into the most profound ignorance. The superior genius of Charlemagne, who about the beginning of the ninth century governed France, Germany, with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, endeavoured to dispel this darkness, and gave their subjects a short glimpse of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and institutions. The darkness returned, and settled over Europe more thick and heavy than formerly.

A new division of property gradually introduced a new species of government formerly unknown; which singular institution is now distinguished by the name of the *Feudal System*. The king, or general, who led the Barbarians to conquest, parcelled out the lands of the vanquished among his chief officers, binding those on whom they were bestowed, to follow his standard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the sovereign, and in distributing portions of their lands among their descendants, annexed the same condition to the grant. But though this system seemed to be admirably calculated for defence against a foreign enemy, it degenerated into a system of oppression.

The usurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a state of actual servitude. They were deprived of the natural and most unalienable rights of humanity. They were slaves fixed to the soil which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by sale, or by conveyance. Every offended baron, or chieftain, buckled on his armour, and sought redress at the head of his vassals. His adversaries met him in like hostile array. The kindred and dependents of the aggressor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter*.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. They declared, that as all men were by nature free-born, they determined it should be so in reality as well as name. In order to create some power, that might counterbalance those potent vassals, who, while they enslaved the people, controuled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. These privileges abolished all marks of servitude, and formed them into corporations, or bodies-politic, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination.

The acquisition of liberty made such a happy change in the condition of mankind, as roused them from that stupidity and inaction into which they had been sunk by the wretchedness of their former state. A spirit of industry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flourish.

Various causes contributed to revive this spirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourse between different nations. Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern, or Greek Empire, had escaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the West. In this city, some remains of literature and science were preserved: this too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where some relish for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. They communicated some knowledge of these to their neighbours in Italy; and the Crusades, which were begun by the Christian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Turks from Jerusalem, opened a communication between Europe and the

East.

* This Gothic system still prevails in Poland; a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland so late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, some relics of these Gothic institutions are perceivable at this day.

East. Constantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Christian armies, in their way to Palestine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of these expeditions was conquest and not commerce, and though the issue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the close of the holy war the mariner's compass was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian States, particularly those of Venice and Genoa, began to establish a regular commerce with the East and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. These commodities they disposed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire some taste of elegance, unknown to their predecessors, or despised by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almost in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in those ages by the name of Lombards. Companies or societies of Lombard merchants settled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of these companies settled in London; hence the name of Lombard-street.

The commercial spirit awakened in the North towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infested that sea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubeck and Hamburgh, soon after they had began to open some trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived such advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a short time, eighty of the most considerable cities, scattered through those vast countries of Germany and Flanders which stretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the Hanseatic League, which became so formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greatest monarchs. The members of this powerful association formed the first systematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general assemblies. They supplied the rest of Europe with naval stores; and pitched on different towns, the most eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, where they established staples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not less useful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the center of communication between the Lombards and Hanseatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city, to such extent as well as advantage, as spirited among them a general habit of industry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the most opulent, the most populous, and best cultivated countries in Europe.

Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a spirit of industry among his own subjects, who, blind to the advantages of their situation, and ignorant of the source from which opulence was destined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did

not even attempt those manufactures, the materials of which they furnished to foreigners. By alluring Flemish artificers to settle in his dominions, as well as by many wise laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufactures of England; and first turned the active and enterprising genius of his people towards those arts which have raised the English to the first rank among commercial nations.

The Christian princes, after their great losses in the Crusades, endeavoured to cultivate their friendship of the great Khans of Tartary, whose fame in arms had reached the most remote corners of Europe and Asia, that they might be some check upon the Turks, who had been such enemies to the Christian name; and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers, serving occasionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the finest countries of Asia.

The Christian embassies were managed chiefly by monks, a wandering set of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, found their way to the remote courts of these infidels. The English philosopher, Roger Bacon, was so indultrious as to collect from their relations, or traditions, many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrims, and other books of travels. The first regular traveller of the monkish kind, who committed his discoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with some of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from Pope Innocent to the great Khan of Tartary, in favour of the Christian subjects in that prince's extensive dominions. Soon after this, a spirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general; and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, served in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greatest princes of Tartary, whose conquests reached to the most remote corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the use of gun-powder and artillery; the discovery made by a German chymist being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the rising power of the Turks, had checked their progress, the Christian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vast riches of the East-Indies, inspired their countrymen with a spirit of adventury and discovery, and were the first that rendered a passage thither by sea probable and practicable. The Portuguese had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their discovery of the Cape of Good-Hope Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

At first they contented themselves with short voyages, creeping along the coasts of Africa, discovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progress Southward, they, in the year 1497, were so fortunate as to sail beyond the cape, which opened a passage by sea to the Eastern ocean, and all those countries known by the name of India, China and Japan.

While the Portuguese were intent upon a passage to India by the East, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of sailing thither by the West. His proposal being condemned by his countrymen

trymen as chimerical and absurd, he laid his scheme successively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better success. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only resource, and there, after eight years attendance, he succeeded, thro' the interest of Queen Isabella, who raised money upon her jewels to defray the expences of his expedition, and to do honour to her sex.

Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested.

In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with, and his sailors, always discontented, began to insist upon his return, threatening, in case of refusal, to throw him overboard; but the firmness of the commander, and the discovery of land, after a passage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his surprize, that this could not be the Indies he was in quest of, and which he soon discovered to be a new world: of which the reader will find a more circumstantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkness into which she had been sunk since the subversion in the Roman empire. These discoveries, from which such wealth was destined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were succeeded by others of unspeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and sciences; and, lastly, the happy reformation in religion, all distinguish the 15th and 16th century as the first æra of modern history. "It was in these ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political system, in which each took a station, wherein it has since remained, with less variation than could have been expected, after the shocks occasioned by so many internal revolutions, and so many foreign wars, of which we have given some account in the history of each particular state in the following sheets. The great events which happened then have not hitherto spent their force. The political principles and maxims then established still continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or rendered general, still influence the councils of European nations."

From all which it seems extremely certain, that the concurrence of so many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no less certain, that in contending for it, they must weaken their own force, and may at length render themselves incapable of defending even their just possessions. The partial conquests they may make are extremely illusive; instead of promoting, they rather oppose their designs; the more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker, and great projects have not been so often executed by slow reiterated efforts, as in the course of a few years, and sometimes by a single expedition. A prince may form a deliberate plan of destroying the rights of his subjects; he may proceed by slow degrees in the execution of it, and if he die before it be compleated, his successor may pursue the same steps, and avail himself of what was done before him: but external conquests

conquests cannot be concealed; they generally occasion more fear than harm, and are almost always less solid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occasion to, by which the prince, who, by misfortune, has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to the last extremities.

History of Religion.

THE history of religion, among all the different nations that have existed in the world, is a subject no less important and interesting than that of civil history. It is, however, less fertile of great events, affords an account of fewer revolutions, and is much more uniform, than civil history. The reason of this is plain: Religion is conversant about things which cannot be seen; and which of consequence cannot suddenly and strongly affect the senses of mankind, as natural things are apt to do. The expectation of worldly riches can easily induce one nation to attack another; but it is not easy to find any thing which will induce a nation to change its religion. The invisible nature of spiritual things, the prejudice of habit and of early education, all stand in the way of changes of this kind. Hence the revolutions in religion have been but few, and the duration of almost any religion, of longer standing than the most celebrated empires; the changes which have happened, in general, have acquired a long time to bring them about, and history scarce affords an instance of the religion of any nation being essentially and suddenly changed for another.

With regard to the origin of religion, we must have recourse to the Scriptures; and are as necessarily constrained to adopt the account there given, as we are to adopt that of the creation given in the same book; namely, because no other hath made its appearance which seems in any degree rational, or consistent with itself.—In what manner the true religion given to Adam was falsified or corrupted by his descendants before the flood, doth not clearly appear from Scripture. Idolatry is not mentioned: nevertheless, we are assured that the inhabitants of the world were then exceedingly wicked; and as their wickedness did not consist in worshipping false gods, it may be concluded that they worshipped none at all; *i. e.* that the crime of the antediluvians was deism or atheism.

After the flood, idolatry quickly made its appearance; but what gave rise to it is not certainly known. This superstition indeed seems to be natural to man, especially when placed in such a situation that he hath little opportunity of instruction, or of improving his rational faculties. This seems also probable from a caution given to the Jews, lest, when they looked up to the sun, moon, and stars, and the rest of the host of heaven, they should be *driven to worship them*. The origin of idolatry among the Syrians and Arabians, and also in Greece, is therefore accounted for with great probability in the following manner, by the author of *The Ruins of Balbec*: "In those uncomfortable deserts, where the day presents nothing to the view but the

uniform,

uniform, tedious, and melancholy prospect of barren sands; the *night* discloses a most delightful and magnificent spectacle, and appears arrayed with charms of the most attractive kind. For the most part unclouded and serene, it exhibits to the wondering eye the host of heaven in all their variety and glory. In the view of this stupendous scene, the transition from admiration to idolatry was too easy to uninstructed minds; and a people whose climate offered no beauties to contemplate but those of the firmament, would naturally look thither for the objects of their worship. The form of idolatry in Greece was different from that of the Syrians, which perhaps may be attributed to that smiling and variegated scene of mountains, valleys, rivers, woods, groves, and fountains, which the transported imagination, in the midst of its pleasing astonishment, supposed to be the seats of invisible deities."

A difficulty, however, arises on this supposition; for if idolatry is naturally produced in the mind of uninstructed and savage man, from a view of the creation, why hath not idolatry of some kind or other taken place among all the different nations of the world. This certainly hath not been the case; of which the most striking examples are the Persians of old, and the Moguls in more modern times. Both these nations were strict Deists; so that we must allow some other causes to concur in producing idolatry besides those already mentioned; and of these causes an imperfect and obscure notion of the true religion seems to be the most probable.

Though idolatry, therefore, was formerly very prevalent, it neither extended over the whole earth, nor were the superstitions of the idolaters all of one kind. Every nation had its respective gods, over which one more excellent than the rest was said to preside; yet in such a manner, that this supreme deity himself was controuled by the rigid empire of the fates, or by what philosophers called *eternal necessity*. The gods of the East were different from those of the Gauls, the Germans, and the other Northern nations. The Grecian divinities differed widely from those of the Egyptians, who deified plants, animals, and a great variety of the productions both of nature and art. Each people also had their own particular manner of worshipping and appealing their respective deities, entirely different from the sacred rites of other countries. All this variety of religions, however, produced neither wars nor dissensions among the different nations; each nation suffered its neighbours to follow their own method of worship, without discovering any displeasure on that account. There is nothing surprising in this mutual toleration, when we consider, that they all looked upon the world as one great empire, divided into various provinces, over each of which a certain order of divinities presided; for which reason they imagined that none could behold with contempt the gods of other nations, or force strangers to pay homage to theirs.—The Romans exercised this toleration in the most ample manner; for though they would not allow any change to be made in the religions that were publicly professed in the empire, nor any new form of worship to be openly introduced, yet they granted to their citizens a full liberty of observing in private the sacred rites of other nations, and of honouring foreign deities as they thought proper.

The

The heathen deities were honoured with rites and sacrifices of various kinds, according to their respective natures and offices. Their rites were absurd and ridiculous; while the priests, appointed to preside over this strange worship, abused their authority, by deceiving and imposing upon the people in the grossest manner.

From the time of the flood to the coming of Christ, idolatry prevailed among almost all the nations of the world, the Jews alone excepted; and even they were on all occasions ready to run into it, as is evident from their history in the Old Testament. At the time of Christ's appearance, the religion of the Romans, as well as their empire, extended over a great part of the world. Some people there were among the heathens who perceived the absurdities of that system; but being destitute of means, as well as of abilities, to effect a reformation, matters went on in their old way. Though there were at that time various sects of philosophers, yet all of them proceeded upon false principles, and consequently could be of no service to the advancement or reformation of religion. Nay, some, among whom were the Epicureans and Academics, declared openly against every kind of religion whatever.

Two religions at this time flourished in Palestine, viz. The Jewish and Samaritan; between whose respective followers reigned the most violent hatred and contempt. The difference between them seems to have been chiefly about the place of worship; which the Jews would have to be in Jerusalem, and the Samaritans on Mount Gerizzim. But though the Jews were certainly right as to this point, they had greatly corrupted their religion in other respects. They expected a Saviour indeed, but they mistook his character; imagining that he was to be a powerful and warlike prince, who should set them free from the Roman yoke, which they bore with the utmost impatience. They also imagined that the whole of religion consisted in observing the rites of Moses, and some others which they had added to them, without the least regard to what is commonly called *morality* or *virtue*; as is evident from the many charges our Saviour brings against the Pharisees, who had the greatest reputation for sanctity among the whole nation. To these corrupt and vicious principles they added several absurd and superstitious notions concerning the divine nature, invisible powers, magic, &c. which they had partly imbibed during the Babylonian captivity, and partly derived from their neighbours in Arabia, Syria, and Egypt. The principal sects among them were the *Essenes*, or *Essenians*, *Pharisees*, and *Sadducees*. The Samaritans, according to the most general opinion, had corrupted their religion still more than the Jews.

When the true religion was preached by the Saviour of mankind, it is not to be wondered at if he became on that account obnoxious to a people so deeply sunk in corruption and ignorance as the Jews then were. It is not here requisite to enter into the particulars of the doctrine advanced by him, or of the opposition he met with from the Jews; as a full account of these things, and likewise of the preaching of the gospel by the Apostles, may be found in the New Testament.—The rapid progress of the Christian religion, under these faithful and inspired ministers, soon alarmed the Jews, and raised various persecutions against its followers. The Jews, indeed, seem at

first to have been every where the chief promoters of persecution; for we find that they officiously went from place to place, where-ever they heard of the increase of the gospel, and by their calumnies and false suggestions endeavoured to excite the people against the Apostles. The Heathens, however, though at first they showed no very violent spirit of persecution against the Christians, soon came to hate them as much as the Jews themselves. Tacitus acquaints us with the causes of this hatred, when speaking of the first general persecution under Nero. That inhuman emperor having, as was supposed, set fire to the city of Rome, to avoid the imputation of this wickedness, transferred it on the Christians. Our author informs us that they were already abhorred on account of their many and enormous crimes. "The author of this name (*Christians*,") says he, "was CHRIST, who, in the reign of Tiberius, was executed under Pontius Pilate, procurator of Judea. The pestilent superstition was for a while suppressed: but it revived again, and spread, not only over Judea, where this evil was first broached; but reached Rome, whither from every quarter of the earth is constantly flowing whatever is hideous and abominable amongst men, and is there readily embraced and practised. First, therefore, were apprehended such as openly avowed themselves to be of that sect; then by them were discovered an immense multitude; and all were convicted, not of the crime of burning Rome, but of hatred and enmity to mankind. Their death and tortures were aggravated by cruel derision and sport; for they were either covered with the skins of wild beasts, and torn in pieces by devouring dogs, or fastened to crosses, or wrapped up in combustible garments, that, when the day-light failed, they might, like torches, serve to dispel the darkness of the night. Hence, towards the miserable sufferers, however guilty and deserving the most exemplary punishment, compassion arose; seeing they were doomed to perish, not with a view to the public good, but to gratify the cruelty of one man."

That this account of Tacitus is downright misrepresentation and calumny, must be evident to every one who reads it. It is impossible that any person can be convicted of hatred and enmity to mankind, without specifying a number of facts by which this hatred shewed itself. The burning of Rome would indeed have been a very plain indication of enmity to mankind; but of this Tacitus himself clears them, and mentions no other crime of which they were guilty. It is probable, therefore, that the only reason of this charge against the Christians, was their absolute refusal to have any share in the Roman worship, or to countenance the absurd superstitions of Paganism in any degree.

The persecution under Nero was succeeded by another under Domitian, during which the Apostle John was banished to Patmos, where he saw the visions, and wrote the book called his *Revelation*, which completes the canon of Scripture. This persecution commenced in the 95th year of the Christian æra; and John is supposed to have wrote his Revelation the year after, or in the following one.

During the first century, the Christian religion spread over a great number of different countries; but as we have now no authentic records concerning the travels of the Apostles, or the success which attended them in their ministry, it was impossible to determine how far

the gospel was carried during this period. We are, however, assured, that even during this early period many corruptions were creeping in, the progress of which was with difficulty prevented even by the apostles themselves. Some corrupted their profession by a mixture of Judaism, others by mixing it with the oriental philosophy; while others were already attempting to deprive their brethren of liberty, setting themselves up as eminent pastors, in opposition even to the apostles, as we learn from the epistles of St Paul, and the third epistle of St John. Hence arose the sects of the Gnostics, Cerinthians, Nicolaitans, Nazarenes, Ebionites, &c. with which the church was troubled during this century.

Concerning the ceremonies and method of worship used by the Christians of the first century, it is impossible to say any thing with certainty. Neither is the church order, government, and discipline, during this period, ascertained with any degree of exactness. Each of those parties, therefore, which exist at this day, contends with the greatest earnestness for that particular mode of worship which they themselves have adopted, and some of the most bigotted would willingly monopolise the word *church* in such a manner as to exclude from all hope of salvation every one who is not attached to their particular party. It doth not, however, appear that, excepting baptism, the Lord's Supper, and anointing the sick with oil, any external ceremonies or symbols were properly of divine appointment.

In the second century Christianity obtained some respite from persecution, which, however, proved very detrimental to its purity. Ceremonies, in themselves futile and useless, but which must be considered as highly pernicious when joined to a religion incapable of any other ornament than the upright lives of its professors, were multiplied only to please the ignorant multitude. The consequence was, that the minds of people were drawn aside from the duties of morality to the observance of idle and unintelligible rites. Mysteries, as they were called, were now also introduced, and the deluded multitude readily imbibed the opinion, that by an observance of these mysteries they might be exempted from that strict watch over their conduct which the Christian religion requires.

At this time also the clergy began to assume a power over the people very different from that of mere teachers. They persuaded the people that the ministers of the Christian church succeeded to all the privileges of the Jewish priesthood, and accordingly the bishops considered themselves as invested with a rank and character similar to those of the high-priest among the Jews, while the presbyters represented the priests, and the deacons the Levites. This notion, which was first introduced in the reign of Adrian, proved a source of very considerable honour and profit to the clergy.

The form of ecclesiastical government was in this century rendered permanent and uniform. One inspector or bishop presided over each Christian assembly, to which office he was elected by the voices of the whole people. To assist him in his office, he formed a council of presbyters, which was not confined to any stated number. To the bishops and presbyters the ministers, or *deacons*, were subject; and the latter were divided into a variety of classes, as the different exigencies of the church required. During a great part of this century,

jury, the churches were independent of each other; nor were they joined together by association, confederacy, or any other bonds but those of charity. Each assembly was a little state governed by its own laws; which were either enacted, or at least approved of, by the society. But, in process of time, all the Christian churches of a province were formed into one large ecclesiastical body, which, like confederate states, assembled at certain times, in order to deliberate about the common interests of the whole. This institution had its origin among the Greeks; but in a short time it became universal, and similar assemblies were formed in all places where the gospel had been planted. These assemblies, which consisted of the deputies or commissioners from several churches, were called *synods* by the Greeks, and *councils* by the *Latins*; and the laws enacted, in these general meetings, were called *canons*, i. e. *rules*.

These councils, of which we find not the smallest trace before the middle of this century, changed the whole face of the church, and gave it a new form; for by them the ancient privileges of the people were considerably diminished, and the power and authority of the bishops greatly augmented. The humility indeed, and prudence, of these pious prelates hindered them from assuming all at once the power with which they were afterwards invested. At their first appearance in these general councils, they acknowledged that they were no more than the delegates of their respective churches, and that they acted in the name and by the appointment of their people. But they soon changed this humble tone; imperceptibly extended the limits of their authority; turned their influence into dominion, their counsels into laws; and at length openly asserted, that Christ had empowered them to prescribe to his people *authoritative rules of faith and manners*. Another effect of these councils was the gradual abolition of that perfect equality which reigned among all bishops in the primitive times. For the order and decency of these assemblies required, that some one of the provincial bishops met in council should be invested with a superior degree of power and authority; and hence the rights of Metropolitans derive their origin. In the mean time, the bounds of the church were enlarged; the custom of holding councils was followed wherever the sound of the gospel had reached; and the universal church had now the appearance of one vast republic formed by a combination of a great number of little states. This occasioned the creation of a new order of ecclesiastics, who were appointed in different parts of the world as heads of the church, and whose office it was to preserve the consistence and union of that immense body, whose members were so widely dispersed throughout the nations. Such was the nature and office of the *Patriarchs*; among whom, at length, ambition, being arrived at its most insolent period, formed a new dignity, investing the bishop of Rome with the title and authority of the *prince of the patriarchs*.

During the second century, all the sects continued which had sprung up in the first, with the addition of several others, the most remarkable of which were the *Ascetics*. These owed their rise to an error propagated by some doctors of the church, who asserted that Christ had established a *double rule of sanctity and virtue* for two different orders of Christians. Of these rules, one was ordinary, the other ex-

traordinary; the one of a lower dignity, the other more sublime; the first for persons in the active scenes of life; the other for those who, in a sacred retreat, aspired after the glory of a celestial state. In consequence of this system, they divided into two parts all those moral doctrines and instructions which they had received either by writing or tradition. One of these divisions they called *precepts*, and the other *counsels*. They gave the name of *precepts* to those laws that were universally obligatory upon all orders of men; and that of *counsels* to those which related to Christians of a more sublime rank, who proposed to themselves great and glorious ends, and breathed after an intimate communion with the Supreme Being.—Thus were produced all at once a new set of men, who made pretensions to uncommon sanctity and virtue, and declared their resolution of obeying all the *precepts* and *counsels* of Christ, in order to their enjoyment of communion with God here; and also that, after the dissolution of their mortal bodies, they might ascend to him with the greater facility, and find nothing to retard their approach to the centre of happiness and perfection. They looked upon themselves as prohibited from the use of things which it was lawful for other Christians to enjoy, such as wine, flesh, matrimony, and commerce. They thought it their indispensable duty to extenuate their body by watchings, abstinence, labour, and hunger. They looked for felicity in solitary retreats, and desert places; where, by severe and assiduous efforts of sublime meditation, they raised the soul above all external objects, and all sensual pleasures. They were distinguished from other Christians, not only by their title of *Ascetics*, *Yrascaboi*, *Essenes*, and philosophers, but also by their garb. In this century, indeed those who embraced such an austere kind of life, submitted themselves to all these mortifications in private, without breaking asunder their social bands, or withdrawing themselves from mankind; but in process of time they retired into deserts, and, after the example of the Essenes and Therapeutæ, they formed themselves into certain companies.

This austere sect arose from an opinion which has been more or less prevalent in all ages and in all countries, namely, That religion consists more in prayers, meditations, and a kind of secret intercourse with God, than in fulfilling the social duties of life in acts of benevolence and humanity to mankind. Nothing can be more evident than that the Scripture reckons the fulfilling of these infinitely superior to the observance of all the ceremonies that can be imagined; yet it somehow or other happens, that almost every body is more inclined to observe the ceremonial part of devotion than the moral; and hence, according to the different humours or constitutions of different persons, there have been numberless forms of Christianity, and the most virulent contentions among those who professed themselves followers of the Prince of Peace. It is obvious, that if the moral conduct of Christians was to be made the standard of faith, instead of speculative opinions, all these divisions must cease in a moment; but while Christianity, or any part of it, is made to consist in speculation, or the observance of ceremonies, it is impossible there can be any end of sects or heresies. No opinion whatever is so absurd, but some people have pretended to argue in its defence; and no ceremony so insignificant, but it hath been explained and sanctified

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by hot-headed enthusiasts : and hence ceremonies, sects, and absurdities, have been multiplied without number, to the prejudice of society and of the Christian religion.—This short relation of the rise of the Ascetic sect will also serve to account for the rise of any other; so that we apprehend it is needless to enter into particulars concerning the rest, as they all took their origin from the same general principle variously modified, according to the different dispositions of mankind.

The Ascetic sect began first in Egypt, from whence it passed into Syria and the neighbouring countries. At length it reached the European nations : and hence that train of austere and superstitious vows and rites which totally obscured, or rather annihilated, Christianity ; the celibacy of the clergy, and many other absurdities of the like kind.—The errors of the Ascetics, however, did not stop here. In compliance with the doctrines of some Pagan philosophers, they affirmed that it was not only lawful, but even praise-worthy to deceive, and to use the expedient of a lie, in order to advance the cause of piety and truth ; and hence the *pious frauds* for which the church of Rome hath been so notorious, and with which she hath been so often and justly reproached.

As Christians thus deviated more and more from the true practice of their religion, they became more zealous in the external profession of it. Anniversary festivals were celebrated in commemoration of the death and resurrection of Christ, and of the effusion of the Holy Ghost on the Apostles. Concerning the days on which these festivals were to be kept, there arose violent contests. The Asiatic churches in general differed in this point from those of Europe ; and towards the conclusion of the century, Victor, bishop of Rome, took it in his head to force the Eastern churches to follow the rules laid down by the Western ones. This they absolutely refused to comply with : upon which Victor cut them off from communion with the church of Rome ; though, by means of the intercession of some prudent people, the difference was made up for the present.

During most of the third century the Christians enjoyed their religion with little molestation ; though the emperors Maximinus and Decius made them feel all the rigours of a severe persecution. Their reigns, however, were but short, and from the time of Decius to that of Dioclesian, the professors of Christianity were not molested. Then indeed they suffered a terrible persecution for ten years from Dioclesian and Galerius, but they found an asylum in the dominions of Constantius ; and in the reign of Constantine, in the fourth century, the Christian religion was established by law throughout the Roman Empire. This event, however, so favourable to the outward peace of the church, was far from promoting its internal harmony, or the reformation of its leaders. The clergy, who had all this time been augmenting their power at the expence of the liberty of the people, now set no bounds to their ambition. The bishop of Rome was the first in rank, and distinguished by a sort of pre-eminency above the rest of the prelates. He surpassed all his brethren in the magnificence and splendor of the church over which he presided ; in the riches of his revenues and possessions ; in the number and variety of his ministers ; in his credit with the people, and in his sumptuous

and splendid manner of living. Hence it happened that when a new pontiff was to be chosen by the presbyters and people, the city of Rome was generally agitated with dissensions, tumults, and cabals, which often produced fatal consequences. The intrigues and disturbances which prevailed in that city in the year 366, when, upon the death of Liberius, another pontiff was to be chosen in his place, are a sufficient proof of what we have advanced. Upon this occasion, one faction elected Damasus to that high dignity; while the opposite party chose Ursicinus, a deacon of the vacant church, to succeed Liberius. This double election gave rise to a dangerous schism, and to a sort of civil war within the city of Rome; which was carried on with the utmost barbarity and fury, and produced the most cruel massacres and desolations. The inhuman contest ended in the victory of Damasus; but whether his cause was more just than that of Ursicinus, is not so easily determined.

Notwithstanding the pomp and splendor which surrounded the Roman see, it is certain that the bishops of Rome had not yet acquired that pre-eminence of power and jurisdiction which they afterwards enjoyed. In the ecclesiastical commonwealth, indeed, they were the most eminent order of citizens; but still they were citizens as well as their brethren, and subject, like them, to the laws and edicts of the emperors. All religious causes of extraordinary importance were examined and determined, either by judges appointed by the emperors, or in councils assembled for that purpose; while those of inferior moment were decided in each district by its respective bishop. The ecclesiastical laws were enacted either by the emperor or councils. None of the bishops acknowledged that they derived their authority from the permission and appointment of the bishop of Rome, or that they were created bishops by the favour of the *apostolic see*. On the contrary, they all maintained that they were the ambassadors and ministers of Jesus Christ, and that their authority was derived from above. It must, however, be observed, that even in this century, several of those steps were laid, by which the bishops of Rome mounted afterwards to the summit of ecclesiastical power and despotism. This happened partly by the imprudence of the emperors, partly by the dexterity of the Roman prelates themselves, and partly by the inconsiderate zeal and precipitate judgment of certain bishops.—The imprudence of the emperor, and precipitation of the bishops, were remarkably discovered in the following event, which favoured extremely the ambition of the Roman pontiff. About the year 372, Valentinian enacted a law, empowering the bishop of Rome to examine and judge other bishops, that religious disputes might not be decided by any profane or secular judges. The bishops, assembled in council at Rome in 378, not considering the fatal consequences that must arise from this imprudent law, both to themselves and to the church, declared their approbation in the strongest terms, and recommended the execution of it in their address to the emperor Gratian. Some think, indeed, that this law empowered the Roman bishop to judge only the bishops within the limits of his jurisdiction; others, that his power was given only for a certain time, and for a particular purpose. This last notion seems the most probable; but still this privilege must have been an excellent instrument in the hands of sacerdotal ambition.

By the removal of the seat of empire to Constantinople, the emperor raised up, in the bishop of this new metropolis, a formidable opponent to the bishop of Rome, and a bulwark which threatened a vigorous opposition to his growing authority. For as the emperor, in order to render Constantinople a second Rome, enriched it with all the rights and privileges, honours, and ornaments, of the ancient capital of the world; so its bishop, measuring his own dignity and rank by the magnificence of the new city, and its eminence as the residence of the emperor, assumed an equal degree of dignity with the bishop of Rome, and claimed a superiority over the rest of the episcopal order. Nor did the emperors disapprove of these high pretensions, since they considered their own dignity as connected in a certain measure with that of the bishop of their imperial city. Accordingly, in a council held at Constantinople, in the year 381, by the authority of Theodosius the Great, the bishop of that city was, during the absence of the bishop of Alexandria, and against the consent of the Roman prelate, placed by the third canon of that council in the first rank after the bishop of Rome, and consequently above those of Alexandria and Antioch. Nestarius was the first bishop who enjoyed these new honours accumulated upon the see of Constantinople. His successor, the celebrated John Chrysostom, extended still farther the privileges of that see, and submitted to its jurisdiction all Thracæ, Asia, and Pontus; nor were the succeeding bishops of that imperial city destitute of a fervent zeal to augment their privileges, and extend their dominion. By this unexpected promotion, the most disagreeable effects were produced. The bishops of Alexandria were not only filled with the most inveterate hatred against those of Constantinople, but a contention was excited between the bishops of Rome and Constantinople; which, after being carried on for many ages, concluded at last in the separation of the Greek and Latin churches.

From this period the Christian church set no bounds to its corruptions; and while the essence of it was totally lost in the West, among a heap of idle ceremonies, the very name was exterminated in the East by the Mahometans, who with amazing celerity over-ran all Asia and Africa, carrying along and establishing their superstition wherever they went.—In the beginning of the seventh century, according to the most learned historians, Boniface III. engaged Phocas, emperor of Constantinople, to take from the bishop of that metropolis the title of *æcumenical* or *universal bishop*, and to confer it upon the Roman pontiff; and thus was first introduced the supremacy of the pope. The Roman pontiffs used all methods to maintain and enlarge this authority and pre-eminence which they had acquired from one of the most odious tyrants that ever disgraced the annals of history.

It would be endless to recount all the enormities and superstitions with which the world was now filled, under the name of religion. Excommunications now received that infernal power which dissolved all connections; so that those whom the bishops or their chief excluded from church-communion were degraded to a level with the beasts. The Roman pontiffs continued to increase their power by every kind of artifice and fraud which can dishonour the heart of man; and by continually taking advantages of the civil dissensions which reigned in Italy, France and Germany, their power in civil affairs arose at

last

last to a most enormous height. The clergy were immersed in crimes of the deepest dye: and the laity, imagining themselves able to purchase pardon of their sins for money, followed the examples of their pastors without remorse. The absurd principle formerly mentioned, namely, that religion consists in acts of austerity, and an unknown mental correspondence with God, produced the most extravagant and ridiculous behaviour in the devotees and reputed saints. They not only lived among the wild beasts, but also after the manner of these savage animals: they ran naked through the lonely deserts with a furious aspect, and all the agitations of madness and frenzy; they prolonged their wretched life by grass and wild herbs, avoided the sight and conversation of men, remained motionless in certain places for several years, exposed to the rigour and inclemency of the seasons, and, towards the conclusion of their lives, shut themselves up in narrow and miserable huts; and all this was considered as true piety, the only acceptable method of worshipping the Deity and attaining a share in his favour.

In this manner matters went on till the beginning of the 16th century, when the Roman pontiffs lived in the utmost tranquillity; nor had they, according to the appearance of things at that time, any reason to fear an opposition to their authority in any respect, since the commotions which had been raised by the Waldenses, Albigenses, &c. were now entirely suppressed. We must not, however, conclude, from this apparent tranquillity and security of the pontiffs and their adherents, that their measures were universally applauded. Not only private persons, but also the most powerful princes and sovereign states, exclaimed loudly against the tyranny of the popes, and the unbridled licentiousness of the clergy of all denominations. They demanded, therefore, a reformation of the church in its head and members, and a general council to accomplish that necessary purpose. But these complaints and demands were not carried to such a length as to produce any good effect; since they came from persons who never entertained the least doubt about the supreme authority of the pope in religious matters, and who of consequence, instead of attempting themselves to bring about that reformation which was so ardently desired, remained entirely inactive, or looked for redress to the court of Rome, or to a general council. But while the so much desired reformation seemed to be at such a great distance, it suddenly arose from a quarter whence it was not at all expected. A single person, Martin Luther, a monk of the order of St Augustine, ventured to oppose himself to the whole torrent of papal power and despotism. This bold attempt was first made public on the 30th of September 1517; and notwithstanding all the efforts of the Pope and his adherents, the doctrines of Luther continued daily to gain ground. Others, encouraged by his success, lent their assistance in the work of Reformation; which at last produced new churches, founded upon principles quite different from that of Rome, and which still continue.

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GEOGRAPHICAL GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.

OF

EUROPE,

And its several Divisions.

EUROPE is bounded by the Northern or Frozen Ocean on the North; by Asia on the East; by the Mediterranean Sea on the South, which divides it from Africa, and by the Atlantic or Western Ocean on the West; being about 3000 miles long, taken from North-East to South-West, and about 1500 miles broad; and is contained chiefly between the latitudes of 35 and 71 degrees North, and between the longitudes of 10 degrees West, and 60 degrees East, from the meridian of London.

This division of the world is by far the least extensive of, the four great ones, usually called quarters. It doth not equal one-fourth of the vast continent of Asia, nor one-third of Africa or America, nor indeed doth it much exceed the size of the island of New-Holland,

in the East Indies: at present, however, it makes a very considerable figure, though perhaps less so now than formerly, when the Roman Empire was at its height. Alexander the Great was the first who freed the inhabitants of the Eastern parts of Europe from the tyranny of the Asiatics, and spread the terror of his arms through the remotest parts of the world: After him, the European nations, though they did not make any extensive conquests, retained their liberty till the time of the Romans, by whom the greatest part of them being subdued, the whole continent, as it were, shewed its prowess against Asia and Africa, the only other divisions of the globe known at that time; neither of these, however, all the strength of Europe was able fully to conquer. The Romans were stopped on the East by the Parthians and Persians, and on the South by the Libyans and Ethiopians. After the dissolution of the Roman Empire; this continent sunk in barbarity, and of consequence its importance in the world was diminished. The Saracens threatened to enslave, not only Europe, but every other part of the world; nor do they, though Asiatics, appear to have been in the least inferior to the Europeans; either in military skill, valour, or any other qualities requisite to preserve their independency, or erect an extensive empire. Europe seems at this time to have been rescued from the dominion of Asia, only by the civil wars which took place among the Saracens; and the destruction of their empire by the Turks. In the 11th and 12th centuries the Europeans made a formidable invasion of Asia, in order to recover the Holy Land from the Infidels, but in this attempt they were finally unsuccessful; so that, upon the whole, we perhaps cannot ascribe to them that superiority over the Asiatics which some authors would wish to do since the revival of the arts. Indeed Europe is undoubtedly that quarter of the globe most remarkable for the valour, the learning, and politeness of its inhabitants; this, most probably, is owing to the smallness of the kingdoms into which it is divided. The continent of Europe is intersected with great numbers of mountainous ridges, which form natural boundaries to its kingdoms, and check the ambition of its princes. In Asia, these natural boundaries are placed at much greater distances from each other; hence the Asiatic empires are vastly larger than those of Europe, and of consequence their rulers being superior in wealth and power to the European monarchs, are proportionably more insolent, haughty, oppressive, and cruel; their subjects are deemed slaves, and, considering themselves as such, their minds are enervated, and they become incapable of making any progress in useful learning. To this oppression, therefore, and not to any imaginary differences in soil, climate, or situation, are we to ascribe the superiority which at present Europe has over the other parts of the world. Even in Europe itself this holds good; the inhabitants of Britain, who enjoy the greatest share of liberty, are also most renowned for their valour and learning; while the inhabitants of Greece, oppressed and disheartened by a cruel and barbarous yoke, are most remarkable for their cowardice and ignorance.

The following table shews the chief States of Europe, with their position in respect to the middle of the continent; the names of their capital cities, religion of the State, and the climate they stand in.

Where

E U R O P E.

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Where E stands for Empire, K for Kingdom, R for Republic, and S for States.

Countries.	Posi.	Religion.	Capital Cities.	Climates.
K Spain	S W	Papists	Madrid	VI
K Portugal	S W	Papists	Lisbon	VI
K France	W	Papists	Paris	IX
K Sardinia	S	Papists	Turin	VIII
S Italy	S	Papists	Rome	VII
K Sicilies	S	Papists	Naples	VII
R Switzerland	Mid.	Protest. & Papists	Bern	VIII
Austrian Netherl.	W	Papists	Brussels	IX
R United Provinces	W	Protestants	Amsterdam	IX
E Germany	Mid.	Protest. & Papists	Vienna	VIII
K Bohemia	Mid.	Papists	Prague	IX
K Hungary	E	Papists	Presburg	IX
K Poland	Mid.	Papists	Warsaw	IX
K Prussia	NW	Protestants	Berlin	IX
E Russia	N E	Greek Church	Petersburgh	XI
K Sweden	N	Protestants	Stockholm	XI
K Denmark	NW	Protestants	Copenhagen	X
K Norway	NW	Protestants	Bergen	XI
E Turkey	S E	{ Mahometans Christ. & Jews	Constantinople	VII
K England	W	Protestants	London	IX
K Scotland	W	Protestants	Edinburgh	X
K Ireland	W	Protest. & Papists	Dublin	IX

THE PRINCIPAL EUROPEAN ISLANDS, AND TO WHAT STATES THEY ARE SUBJECT.

IN THE WESTERN AND NORTHERN OCEANS.

To GREAT BRITAIN. { England, Scotland, Ireland,
Orkneys, Shetland, and Western Islands.

To DENMARK. { Iceland. The chief towns, Scallbolt and
Kola; East and West Greenland.

To PORTUGAL. The Azores.

IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

To SPAIN. { Islands. Ivica, Majorca.
Chief towns. Ivica, Majorca.

To

* By the late partition, the kingdom of Poland hath been almost totally ruined, and its dominions shared among the three powers Russia, Poland, and Prussia, as shall be shewn in its proper place; however, as it still retains the name, we choose to allow it a place among the European kingdoms as formerly.

To GR. BRITAIN. Minorca. Chief town Citadella.

To FRANCE. Corsica. Chief town Bastia.

To SARDINIA. Sardinia. Chief town Cagliari.

To SICILIES. { Sicily. Chief town Palermo.
Lipari Islands.

To TURKEY. Candia, Archipelago Islands, and Leucadia.

To VENICE. { Islands.] Liefena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant,
Ch. towns.] Liefena, Corfu, Argostoti, Zant.

IN THE BALTIC SEA.

To DENMARK. { Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Longland,
Laland, Falster, Mona, Bornholm.

To SWEDEN. Gothland, Alan, Rugen.

To RUSSIA. Osel, Dagho.

To PRUSSIA, Usedom, Wollin.

THE PRINCIPAL SEAS, GULFS, AND BAYS, IN EUROPE, ARE,
The *Mediterranean Sea*, having Europe on the North, and Africa
on the South.

The *Adriatic Sea*, between Italy and Turkey.

The *Euxine*, or *Black Sea*, in Turkey, between Europe and Asia.

The *White Sea*, in the NNW parts of Russia.

The *Baltic Sea*, between Sweden, Denmark, and Poland.

The *German Ocean*, or *Sea*, between Germany and Britain.

The *English Channel*, between England and France.

St George's Channel, between Britain and Ireland.

The *Bay of Biscay*, formed between France and Spain.

The *Gulf of Bothnia*, in the NE parts of Sweden.

The *Gulf of Finland*, between Sweden and Russia.

The *Gulf of Venice*, the NW end of the Adriatic Sea.

S P A I N.

Name and Situation. THE most Westerly kingdom in Europe, anciently including Portugal, and called *Iberia* and *Hispania* by the Romans, who, about the time of the Punic wars, divided it into *Citerior* or *Hither*, and *Uterior* or *Farther* Spain.

Boundaries.

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Boundaries.] Bounded on the North by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean Mountains. On the South by the Mediterranean Sea and the Straights of Gibraltar. On the East by the Mediterranean Sea. On the West by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean.

Extent.] From latitude 36 degrees to 44 North, about 560 miles. From longitude 3 degrees East to 10 degrees West, about 780 miles: But the mean extent from North to South must be estimated at about 400 miles; and from East to West about 600 miles geographical. Comprehending five divisions, viz. The Northern, the Eastern, the Southern, the Middle, and the Spanish islands.

Division.	Provinces.	Situation.	Chief Towns.	Latitude.	Longitude.
Northern	Gallicia	N W	Compostella	43. 00 N	9. 15 W
	Asturia	N	Oviedo	43. 30	6. 40
	Biscay	N	Bilboa	43. 30	3. 00
Eastern	Navarre	N E	Pampeluna	43. 15	1. 30
	Aragon	E N E	Saragossa	41. 32	1. 15
	Catalonia	E	Barcelona	41. 20	2. 0 E
Southern	Valentia	E	Valentia	39. 20	0. 35 W
	Murcia	S E	Murcia	38. 6	1. 15
	Granada	S	Granada	37. 15	3. 40
Middle	Andalusia	S	Seville	37. 15	6. 0
	Old Castile	M	Burgos	43. 30	4. 5
	New Castile	M	Madrid	40. 30	4. 15
Spanish Islands to Britain.	Leon	M	Leon	43. 0	6. 5
	Extremadura	M	Merida	39. 55	6. 32
	Ivica	E	Ivica	39. 0	1. 0 E
	Majorca	E	Majorca	39. 30	2. 30 E
	Minorca	E	Citadella	40. 0	3. 30 E

Title.	Prov.	Subdivision.	Title.	Chief towns.	Considerable towns.
Kingdom	Gallicia	Compostella	Archbishop.	Compostella	Corunna
		Mondenedo	Bishop.	Mondenedo	Ferrol
		Lugo	Bishop.	Lugo	Vigo
		Ortense	Bishop.	Ortense	Betanzo
		Tuy	Territory	Tuy	Rivadavia
Princ- pality	Asturia	Asturia	de Oviedo	Oviedo	Aviles
		Asturia	de Santillana	Santillana	St Vincent.
Lord- ship	Biscay	Biscay	Proper	Bilboa	St. Sebastian.
		Guipiscoa		Tholosa	St. Andero.
		Alava		Vittoria	Laredo.
Kingdom	Navarre	Pampeluna	Majorship	Pampeluna	
		Olita	Majorship	Olita	
		Tudela	Majorship	Tudela	
		Estella	Majorship	Estella	
		Sanguesa	Majorship	Sanguesa	

Title,

	Title.	Prov.	Subdivision.	Title.	Chief towns.	Considerable towns.
Kingdom	Arragon		Saragossa Jaca Huesca Balbastro Taracona Albarasin Teruel Sobarbe	Archbishopric Bishopric Bishopric Bishopric Bishopric Bishopric Bishopric	Saragossa Jaca Huesca Balbastro Taracona Albarasin Teruel Ainsa	Calataud and Boria.
Principality	Catalonia		Barcelona Urgel Balaguer Lerida Tortosa Girone Tarragona Lampredan Vich Cardonna Solsona Puycerda	District District District District District District District District District District District	Barcelona Urgel Balaguer Lerida Tortosa Girone Tarragona Roses Vich Cardonna Solsona Puycerda	Maurefi.
Kingdom	Valentia		Xucar Millaros Segura	District District District	Valentia Villa Her- mosa Origuela	Segorbe, Xativa, Alcant, Denia, Gandia, Morvedo, Villareal Al- cira, Atea.
Kingdom	Murcia		Murcia Lorca Carthagena	District Proper District	Murcia Lorca Carthagena	Caravaca and Mula.
Kingdom	Granada		Granada Malaga Almeira Guadix	Archbishopric Bishopric Bishopric Bishopric	Granada Malaga Almeira Guadix	Ronda, Antiquera, Baza, and Loya.
Province	Andalusia		Seville Jaen Corduba Medina Sidonia	Archbishopric Bishopric Bishopric Dutchy	Seville Jaen Corduba Medina Si- donia	Cadiz, Gib- raltar, St. Mary, Baeza Osuna, St. Lucar, &c.
Province	Old Castile		Burgos Rioxa Calahorra Soria Osma Valadolid Segovia Avila Siguenfa	District District District District District District District District	Burgos Logronno Calahorra Soria Osma Valadolid Segovia Avila Siguenfa	Rea, Aranda, Calzada and St. Domingo.

Yble.	Prov.	Subdivision.	Chief towns:
Province	New Castile	N. of the Tajo	Madrid
		Upon the Tajo	Toledo
		E. of Toledo	Cuenca
		On the Guadiana	Ciudad Real
		E. of Madrid	Alcala de Henarez
		Frontiers of Valentia	Almanza
		N. W. of Madrid	Escorial
		N. E. of Madrid	Guadalaxara
		N. E. of Madrid	Brihuega
		La Mancha S.	
Kingdom	Leon	La Sierra E.	Calatrava
		On the Guadiana	Villena Requena
		Frontiers of Valencia	
			Leon
		North of the Douro	Palencia, or Placentia
			Toro
			Zamora
			Astorgo
		South of the Douro	Salamanca
			Alva
Province	Estremadura		Ciudad Rodrigo
		On the Guadiana	Merida
			Badajox
		North of the Tajo	Placentia
			Coria
		Betw. Tajo and Guadiana	Truxillo
		South of the Guadiana	Lenera, or Ellenera
		On the Tajo	Alcantara
		On the Guadiana	Medelia
Spanish Islands		Majorca	Majorca
		Minorca, subject to Great Britain	Citadella
			Port Mahon
		Ivica	Ivica

Mountains.] 1. Pyrenean Mountains divide France from Spain, extending 200 miles from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean Sea. In this extent there are only five narrow passes, or ways, between the countries of Spain and France. 2. Cantabrian Mountains on the N. run from E. to W. from the Pyrenees to the Atlantic Ocean to the Southward of Cape Finisterre; though these are by some reckoned only a continuation of the Pyrenees. 3. Sierra Molina and Tablada separate Old Castile from New Castile. 4. Sierra Morena divides New Castile and Estremadura from Andalusia. 5. Sierra Navada, or Snow Mountains, run from E. to W. through Granada. 6. Mount Calpe, near Gibraltar, opposite to Mount Abyla in Africa; which mountains were anciently called Hercules' Pillars.

Rivers

Rivers and Lakes.] 1. Douro, formerly Durius, after running W. through Old Castile, Leon, and cross Portugal, falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Oporto. 2. Ebro, anciently Iberus, rises in Old Castile runs by Tudela and Saragossa S. E. through Arragon, and falls into the Mediterranean Sea below Tortosa. 3. Guadalaviar, now Turio runs from Arragon S. W. cross Valentia, and falls into the Mediterranean at the city of Valentia. 4. Guadalquivir, anciently Batis, runs W. through Andalusia, passing by Seville, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean at St Lucar. 5. Guadiana, anciently Anas, runs S. W. through New Castile and Estremadura, falling into the Atlantic Ocean at Ayamont in the Bay of Cadiz. This river had the name of Anas, from its being supposed to run for a considerable space under ground; the fact, however, is not ascertained, and it is now only thought to run thro' a narrow channel overgrown with trees and bushes, which prevent its waters from being seen. 6. Lima runs from Galicia S. W. into the Atlantic Ocean, under the bridge of Cima, making a large bay S. of Viana. 7. Minho runs S. W. through Galicia, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, N. of Viana. 8. Mondego, or Monda, runs W. by Coimbra into the Atlantic Ocean. 9. Segura runs East through Murcia and part of Valentia, falling into the Mediterranean between Carthagena and Alicant. 10. Tajo, anciently Tagus, runs W. thro' New Castile and Estremadura, falling into the Atlantic Ocean, below Lisbon. 11. Zadao, anciently Callipus, runs from the mountains of Algarva, cross Alentejo, into the Atlantic Ocean, making a large Bay at Setubal. 12. Zucar runs from W. to E. cross Valentia, and falls into the Mediterranean by Gandia, seven leagues below Valentia. There are several fine lakes in this country, abounding with excellent trout; and there is a salt lake near Antiguera, which produces good salt by the heat of the sun.

Promontories or Capes.] 1. Cape de Ortegal in Galicia; 2. Cape Pennas in Asturia; 3. Cape de Machia in Biscay, on the North; 4. Cape Ferrol; 5. Cape Billem; 6. Cape Finisterre on the North-West, in Galicia; 7. Cape Trafalgar, on the South-West, in Andalusia; 8. Cape de Gate; 9. Cape Palos; 10. Cape St Martin, on the South, in Granada, Murcia, and Valencia; 11. Cape Creuse, on the East in Catalonia.

Bays or Gulphs.] 1, 2, 3. Bays of Biscay, Ferrol, and Corunna, or Groyne, on the North-West. 4. Vigo-Bay on the West. 5, 6. Bays of Cadiz and Gibraltar on the South-West. 7. Bay of Carthagena on the South. 8, 9, 10, 11. Bays of Alicant, Altea, Valentia, and Roses, on the East. 12. Bay of Majorca, in the island of that name. 13. Bay or harbour of Port-Mahon in the island of Minorca, belonging to England.

Streight.] Streight of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa.

Air.] Spain being a mountainous country, and of great extent, the air is very different in the North and South, as well as on the mountains and vallies.

Generally the air is dry, serene, and pure, except about the Equinoxes

boxes, when their rains usually fall. The Southern provinces are subject to great heats, in June, July, and August; however, on the mountains, and near the coast, they are refreshed with cool breezes in the Southernmost part of Spain; and on the mountains on the North and North-East, it is very cold in Winter, and even in Summer the night-air will make a traveller shiver.

Soil and Produce.] Their are some sandy barren deserts in the South; but their vallies in general are exceeding fruitful, and their mountains are covered with trees and herbage to the very tops. The country produces a great variety of rich wines, oil, and fruit; such as Seville oranges, lemons, prunes, figs, raisins, almonds, pomegranates, chestnuts, and capers. The wines, especially, sack and sherry, are in high esteem among foreigners, and the exports of wine and raisins, from Malaga and the neighbouring countries, are valued at L. 268,759. Sterling. Even sugar-canes thrive here, and they have saffron (tho' of an inferior quality to the English) honey, and silk, in great abundance. The kingdom of Marcia abounds so much with mulberry-trees, that it's produce in silk is reckoned worth L. 200,000. a-year. The country is also noted for medicinal springs, which are daily more and more coming into repute. It produces also silk, fine wool, flax and cotton; and there are mines of quicksilver, iron, copper, lead, and allum. The steel of Toledo and Bilboa is esteemed the best in Europe.

Animals.] Their most useful animals are, horses, mules, cattle, and sheep. They have chamois goats on their mountains, and are pretty much pestered with wolves, but scarce any other wild beasts; They have plenty of deer, wild fowl, and other game, and their seas well stored with fish, among which is the anchovy, in the Mediterranean. It has been supposed, that the number of people employed as shepherds in Spain amount to forty thousand, who change the place of pasturing their flocks according to the change of season; these sheep furnishing a large quantity of the finest sort of wool, produce a very considerable article of commerce; and by reason of the great quantity of Aromatic herbs produced in this country, their flesh, as well as that of the kids, is rendered exquisitely delicious. The Spanish horses, especially those of Andalusia, are reckoned the handfomest in Europe, and are likewise very swift and serviceable; but the king endeavours to monopolize the finest breeds for his own stables and service.

Manufactures.] Their manufactures are of silk, wool, iron, copper, some kinds of precious stones, and other hard-ware; but these are not so considerable as might be expected, which proceeds in a great measure from the indolence of the natives, and their want of artificers. They receive therefore most of their woollen manufactures, wrought silks, lace, and velvets, from England, France, Italy, and Holland; which they transport to America by the Galleons; and consequently great part of the treasure brought home by the Galleons is paid to the merchants of those nations who furnish them with goods. The Spanish iron, next to that of Damascus, furnishes the best arms in

the world, and formerly brought in a vast revenue to the crown: Even at this day, Spanish gun-barrels, and swords of Toledo, are highly valued. Anciently this country abounded with silver mines, from which the Carthaginians drew immense riches, but these have long since entirely disappeared.

Traffic.] Their greatest branch of foreign traffic in Europe was formerly with England; they exchanged their wine and fruits for the woollen manufactures of Great Britain; but neither Italy nor France takes off much of their wine or fruits, having enough of their own, and consequently the traffic of Spain with those countries was not so advantageous as that with England.

The Spaniards, in return for the manufactures they export to America, receive gold, silver, cochineal, indigo, the cacao, or chocolate-nut, logwood, and other dying woods, sugar, tobacco, snuff, and other produce of that part of the world, supplying most of the countries of Europe and Asia with the silver they bring from thence in their Galleons.

Constitution.] This kingdom formerly enjoyed more liberty than any nation in Europe. The cortes, or parliaments, especially in Castile, had greater power and privileges than those of England; but Charles V. curtailed them so effectually, that now though some faint remains of their constitution are still discernible in the government, they are entirely under the power of the king. From being the most free state in Europe, Spain is now become the most despotic, and the monarchy is hereditary; the females inherit in default of the male issue, and the king seems to have it in his power to bestow the crown on what branch of the royal family he pleases; of which we have an instance, when Charles II. bestowed the kingdom on the Duke of Anjou.

But notwithstanding the king of Spain is an absolute sovereign, he seldom violates the laws, or transacts any affairs of state, without the advice of the several councils or boards established for the respective branches of business; of these,

1. The junta, or cabinet-council, consists of the principal secretary of state, and five or six more of the king's nomination, which finally determines all matters relating to the government.
2. The privy council, which consists of a greater number, and prepares all matters for the cabinet.
3. The council of war.
4. The council of Castile, which is the highest court of judicature in the kingdom, for civil and criminal causes, and receives appeals from all inferior courts within its jurisdiction.
5. The seven courts of royal audiences, viz. of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valentia, and Barcelona. These take cognizance of all causes within five leagues of their respective capital cities, in the first instance; and, by way of appeal, of all causes removed from inferior courts within their respective jurisdictions, as those of the Alcades, Bailiffs, Corregidors, Regidors, Viaguers, &c.

The

The government of Spanish America forms a system of itself, and is delegated to viceroys and other magistrates, who are, in their respective districts, almost absolute. A council for the Indies is established in Old Spain, and consists of a governor, four secretaries, twenty-two counsellors, besides officers. Their decision is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally chosen from the viceroys and magistrates who have served in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom trusted to one person for more than three years, but they are thought sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Massulquiver, on the coast of Barbary in Africa; and the islands of St Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrone, in Asia.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca, and Ivica, of which we have nothing particular to say. Minorca is indeed a Spanish island, but it was taken by the English in 1708. The Spanish inhabitants enjoy their religion and particular privileges, to which they are entitled by treaties, and they are said to amount to 27,000.

The King's titles. The kings of Spain, in their title, used to enumerate all the kingdoms and provinces of which they were sovereigns; but they are all comprehended in that of his Catholic Majesty. The eldest son of Spain is stiled the Prince of Asturias; the younger sons are stiled Infants, and the daughters Infantas, that is, children.

Royal Arms, Nobility, Orders, &c. Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, all which, with several others, were by name entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to about thirty-two. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of his Catholic Majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword, without being crowned. Their signature never mentions their name, but, I, THE KING.

The armorial bearing of the kings of Spain, like their title, was loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermost on the right hand, and the lowest on the left, contain a castle, with three towers, for Castile; and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are three lions, gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry, unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the golden fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king. The knights of the three military orders of St James, Calatrava, and Alcantara, are esteemed noble-

men; they were instituted in the long wars between the Christians and the Moors, as an encouragement to valour; and have large estates annexed to their respective orders, consisting chiefly of towers or territories recovered from the Moors. The order of the golden fleece is generally conferred on princes and sovereign dukes; but there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

Forces.] The forces of Spain, in time of peace, are computed to be 70,000, and they may have upwards of 100,000 in time of war: The Walloon, or foreign guards, are esteemed their best soldiers. They have increased their royal navy, of late, so much, that no proper computation can be made of their naval strength at present.

Some of their largest and best ships are built at their American ports, particularly at the Havannah, in the island of Cuba; but their ships of war, in general, are better fitted for battery than for sailing.

Revenues.] The revenues of the crown arising in Spain are computed to be between five and eight millions Sterling per annum; and have been much improved since the accession of the house of Bourbon. Their American silver mines are inexhaustible, of which the king has a fifth; and it is by these that the two last wars were chiefly supported.

Taxes.] The taxes in Spain are duties on goods imported and exported; on goods brought into Madrid, or carried from one province to another. The rents of the first floors of all the houses in Madrid. A kind of land-tax on the peasants, and those under the degree of nobility. A kind of general excise on meat, drink, and other provisions. Duties on cattle driven from North to South. A tax on those who eat butter, cheese, milk, or eggs, in Lent. A tax on the clergy who are exempt from military service. A tax on the three military orders, for the king their grand master. A tax on timber. But more money is raised by the king's fifth of the treasure brought from America, than by all other means.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, Diversions, &c.] Spain, formerly the most populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited; owing partly to the great drains of people sent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raise food for their families. Another cause is the vast numbers of ecclesiastics of both sexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Several other causes have been assigned, such as their wars with the Moors, and final expulsion of that people; but these seem to be in a great measure removed by the regulations and checks upon the clergy that have been introduced by his present Catholic Majesty. Be that as it may, some late writers have computed the inhabitants of Spain at 7,500,000; others say, that they do not exceed 5,000,000. This last calculation, however, must be under-rated, considering the numerous armies which Spain has raised and recruited since the beginning of this century; and Feijoo, a modern Spanish author, computed the number to be 9,250,000.

The persons of the Spaniards are generally tall, especially the Castilians;

Spaniards; their hair and complexions swarthy, but their countenances are very expressive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of mustachoes, and to introduce among them the French dress; instead of their black cloaks, their short jerkin, strait breeches, and long Toledo swords; which dress is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the accession of the house of Bourbon to their throne, affected that anti-gallic dress in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find some difficulty in abolishing it quite, as the same spirit is far from being extinguished. An old Castilian, or Spaniard, who sees none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature; and the same pride is commonly communicated to his descendents. This is the true reason why so many of them are fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of seeing a superior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the most exalted qualities. It inspires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous sentiments; it being seldom found that a Spanish nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the most embittered wars they have had with England for near seventy years past, we know of no instance of their taking advantage (as they might easily have done) of confiscating the British property on board their Galleons and Plate-fleet, which has been always equally secure in time of war as peace. This is the more surprising, as Philip V. was often needy, and his ministers were far from being scrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By the best and most credible accounts of the late war, it appears that the Spaniards in South America gave the most humane and noble relief to all British subjects who were in distress and fell into their hands, not only by supplying them with necessaries, but money; and treating them in the most hospitable manner while they remained among them; and even since the commencement of the present war, we have had instances of their great humanity and generosity, particularly in the Admiral who took the East and West India fleets, who is said to have expended L. 2000 of his private property in accommodating his prisoners.

We are, however, carefully to distinguish between the Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, and the officers of government. The latter are to be put on the same footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, and are as mean and rapacious as those of any other country. The kings of Spain, of the house of Bourbon, have seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families as their ministers. These are generally French or Italians, but most commonly the latter, who rise in power by the most infamous arts, and of late times from the most abject stations. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, since their accession to the monarchy, have been but very indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greatest genius among them, embroiled his master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The common people who live on the coasts partake of all the bad qualities

qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingled with the Spaniards. In time of war they follow privateering with great success; and, when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service.

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns mostly in their novels and romances; for though it must be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their persons, they are commonly small and slender; but they are said to employ vast art in supplying the defects of nature. If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose, that those artifices rather diminish than increase their beauty, especially when they are turned of twenty-five. Their indiscriminate use of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly disfigures their complexion, and shrivels their skin; but it is universally allowed that they have great wit and vivacity.

The Spaniards are generally known to have refined notions, and excellent sense; and this, if improved by study and travelling, which they now stand in great need of, would render them superior to the French themselves. Their slow deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off, and they are now found to be as quick, both in resolving and executing, as other nations. Their fecrecy, constancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in several of their provinces, particularly Galatia, Granada, and Andalusia, the common people have, for some time, assiduously applied themselves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their sobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfast, as well as sup, in bed; their breakfast is usually chocolate; tea being very seldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, salad, and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evenings. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country-dance. Their theatrical exhibitions are generally insipid, and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head appears through a trap-door above the level of the stage, and he reads the play so loud that he is heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling passion in this country, and they omit no expence in the display of it. A lover will frequently pass the night under the windows of his mistress, serenading her with the finest music in Spain. Jealousy, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, has greatly abated. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-fights, are almost peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of shewing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier

is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he has killed in these encounters. Great arms are used in settling the form and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diversion itself is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalry. Their fondness for this inhuman diversion is carried to the most ridiculous extravagance. Scarcely a town in the country wants a square for exhibiting bull-fights. It is even said, that the inhabitants of the poorest villages will club together in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them riding upon asses instead of horses.

Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the capacities of its natives; which may, in some measure, be owing to their intolerance and bigotry. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Isidore Bishop of Seville, and Cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. Calderoni and Lopez de Vega, have, by some, been put in competition with Shakespeare in the drama, where, it must be owned, they shew great genius. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of *Don Quixote*, lived in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of *Don Quixote*, did as much service to his country, by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. Herrera, and some other historians, particularly De Solis, have shewn great abilities in history, by investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amusing and instructive.

Some Spaniards have also distinguished themselves in the polite arts, particularly Murillo, in painting; and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escorial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities, as sculptors and architects; but neither their names nor works are much known in other parts of Europe.

Madrid, though unfortified, (it being only surrounded by a mud-wall,) is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. All its grandeur, which the Spaniards blazon with great pomp, does not prevent its being, according to the best accounts, a dirty uncomfortable place, especially for strangers. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. The houses are of brick; and are laid out chiefly for shew, convenience being little considered; thus, you will commonly pass through two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end where the family sit. The houses in general look like prisons; the windows, besides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid; the Spaniards not being fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially

if they are not Catholics. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions, but neither tavern, coffee-house, nor news-paper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the West side of the city; it is a spacious magnificent structure, consisting of three courts, and commands a very fine prospect. The other royal palaces round it, are designed for hunting seats, or houses of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of those palaces are the Buen Retiro, Casa de Campo, Aranjuez, and St Ildefonso.

The palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, are said to be very delightful. There is a park, many leagues in circumference, intersected by alleys of two, three, and even four miles in extent. Each of these alleys is formed by two double rows of elm trees, and of sufficient breadth to admit four coaches a-breast; and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a stream of water. Between these alleys there are thick groves of smaller trees, of various kinds, and thousands of deer and wild boars wander there at large, besides vast numbers of hares, rabbits, &c. It is also well stocked with pheasants, partridges, and several other kinds of birds. This park is divided into two unequal parts by the river Tagus. The central point is the king's palace, which is partly surrounded by the garden. The building is rather magnificent than elegant, but the garden is finely decorated with fountains and statues, and contains a vast variety of the most beautiful flowers, whether natives of Europe or other parts of the world.

The palace of St Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered and painted. It is two stories high, and the garden front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a suite. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which is a great reservoir of water, called here *El Mar*, that is, *the sea*, which supplies the fountains; and this reservoir itself is supplied by the torrents which pour down from the neighbouring hills. The great entry to this palace is somewhat similar to that of Versailles, and hath a large iron palisade. In the gardens are twenty-seven fountains; the basons are of white marble, and the statues, many of which are of excellent workmanship, are made of lead, bronzed and gilt. There are also sixty-one very fine marble statues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vases, and twenty leaden vases, gilt.

The most magnificent palace in Spain, however, is the Escorial, built by Philip II. at the enormous expence, it is said, of no less than L. 3,300,000. Sterling. It hath 11,000 windows, and the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, and other costly stones. Besides the palace, it is said to contain a church, mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library; besides large apartments for all kinds of artists and mechanics, extensive parks and gardens, beautified with noble walks, fountains, and other ornaments. Two hundred fathers live in the convent, and enjoy a revenue of L. 12,000 a-year. The mausoleum, or burying-place, of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, because it is built upon the plan of the temple at Rome; as the church to which it belongs is upon the plan of St Peter's. One defect, however, it certainly has, namely, being built in the form of a gridiron in honour of St Laurence, who

who is said to have been broiled upon an instrument of that kind. This was owing to the superstition of the times, and is common to a great number of other buildings erected in that age; so that even the cathedral of St Paul's at London hath not escaped the infection.

This palace was erected in commemoration of the victory Philip II. obtained over the French, (but by the assistance of the English forces,) at St Quintin, on St Laurence's day, in the year 1563.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, which joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been, of late years, attempted by the British, in their wars with Spain, because of the vast interest our merchants have in the treasures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors.

Seville is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. Its manufacturers in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spanish America is removed to Cadiz.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortrefs of Andalusia, is at present in possession of Great Britain. It was taken from the Spaniards by the confederate fleet of the English and Dutch, under the command of Sir George Rook, in 1704, and, after many fruitless attempts to recover it, was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. It is a commodious port, and formed by nature for commanding the passage of the straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant Seas. The town is neither large nor beautiful, yet, on account of its fortifications, is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison, well provided for its defence. It is built upon a rock in a peninsula; and across the Isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, to prevent the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country; notwithstanding which, they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garrison is confined within very narrow limits, and the ground scarcely produces any thing, so that it is supplied with provisions, either from England, or from the opposite coast of Barbary.

Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but finding that power carried to an extravagant height, the Parliament thought proper to erect it into a body-corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates. The road of Gibraltar is neither safe against an enemy nor storms. The bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The straits are twenty-four miles long, and fifteen broad; through which sets a current from the Atlantic Ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the stemming of it a brisk gale is required.

Barcelona, a large trading city, contains 15,000 houses, and is reckoned the handiomest in Spain. It was founded by Hamilcar Barca, the father of the celebrated Hannibal the Carthaginian, who called it *Barcino*, after his own home. It is situated on the Mediter-

anean,

rañean, facing Minorca, and the inhabitants are more active and industrious than most of the other Spaniards.

The city of Salamanca is surrounded with most delightful prospects. It is an ancient, large, rich, and populous place; hath ten gates, twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the same number of nunneries. Its greatest ornament is a square built near half a century ago. The houses are all three stories high, and exactly proportioned, with iron balconies, and a stone balustrade upon them; the lower part is arched, thus forming a piazza, all round the square, of 293 feet on each side: over some of the arches are medallions, with busts of the kings of Spain, and some other eminent personages, in stone basso relievo. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, yet entire; though built in the time of the Romans.

Toledo is one of the most ancient cities in Spain, and, during several centuries, was accounted its capital; but being situated so near Madrid is now drained of most of its inhabitants, so that were it not for the revenue of its cathedral, and the manufactures of sword-blades and silk-stuffs, it would be almost entirely deserted.

Notwithstanding the pride and ostentation of the Spaniards, their penury is easily discernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites easily satisfied. The inferior orders, even in the greatest cities, are miserably lodged, and those lodgings wretchedly furnished. The poorer sorts, both men and women, wear neither shoes nor stockings. A traveller in Spain must carry provisions and bedding with him, and if perchance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he must even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard to perform these offices to strangers; but some tolerable inns have lately been opened by Irish and French-men in the cities, and upon the high-ways. The pride, indolence, and laziness of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more industrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contrast distinguishes the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard seldom stirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind; he sleeps, goes to mass, takes his evening-walk. The industrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domestic; he is butcher, cook, and taylor, all in the same family; he powders the hair, cuts the corn, wipes the shoes; and after making himself useful in a thousand different shapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expence of his proud benefactor.

[*Antiquities and Curiosities.*] The former of these are chiefly Roman and Moorish. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two mountains, and is supported by a double row of 152 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to

Seville.

Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, said to be one of the greatest curiosities of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven isles, in which are 366 altars, and twenty-four gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments.

The Moorish antiquities, especially the palace of Granada, are magnificent and rich; the inside is overlaid with jasper and porphyry, and the walls contain many Arabic inscriptions; the whole is executed in what we improperly call the Gothic taste, but it is really Saracen, though the Goths of Spain adopted it. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain, some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

Language.] The language of the Spaniards comes as near the Latin as any language now spoken in Europe, tho' mixed with some Arabic words and terminations, introduced by the Moors. Their pater noster runs thus; *Padro nuestro, que estas en los cielos, santificade sea tu nombre; venga tu regno; hagase tu voluntad, assien la tierra como en el cielo; da nos hoy nuestro pan cotidiano; y perdona nos nuestras deudas assi como nos otros perdonamos a nuestros deudores; y no nos metas en tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le regno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los siglos. Amen.*

Religion.]—As to religion, the Spaniards are zealous Romanists; and the church is governed by archbishops and bishops, subject to the controul of the pope. There is no country, except Portugal, where the Inquisition once reigned with such terror; no subject but was liable to be prosecuted by the Holy Office, as it is called; though it was first instituted for the trial of the sincerity of Moorish and Jewish converts, who were compelled to profess the Christian religion after the conquest of Granada, anno 1491. In this court it was scarce possible for a prisoner to make a tolerable defence, not being suffered to know either his accusers or the witnesses against him; but he was required to confess himself guilty, or submit to the torture, till such a confession was extorted from him as the fathers required. The horrors of this religion are now moderated, but the penalties of the Inquisition, though disused, are not abrogated; only the ecclesiastics and their officers can carry no sentence into execution without the royal authority.

Archbishopricks and bishopricks.] There are eight archbishopricks in Spain, viz. *Toledo*, comprehending the bishopricks of Corduba, Segovia, Carthagen, Siguenza, Oñava, Cuenza, Jaen, and Valladolid. 2. *Burgos*, comprehending the bishopricks of Pampeluna, Calahorra, with Calzada and Palencia. 3. *Compostella*, comprehending the bishopricks of Salamanca, Avila, Placentia, Lugos, Samira, Orenza, Astorga, Tuy, Badaos, Mondonedo, Coria Ciudad, Rodrigo, Leon, and Oviedo. 4. *Granada*, comprehending the bishopricks of Almeria and Malaga. 5. *Seville*, comprehending the bishopricks of Cadiz,

diz, Guadix, and the Canary Islands. 6. *Saragossa*, comprehending the bishopricks of Huesca, Jaca, Tarazona, Balbastro, Teruil, and Albaracin. 7. *Taragone*, comprehending the bishopricks of Barcelona, Lerida, Girona, Vich, Urgel, Solsona, and Tortosa; and, 8. *Valencia*, comprehending the bishopricks of Origuel and Majorca.

The archbishop of Toledo is styled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Castile; has a revenue of 300,000 ducats per annum, amounting to 100,000*l.* sterling, or more.

Universities.] There are twenty-two universities, of which the chief are Salamanca, Compostella, Alcala de Henares, Valladolid, Saragossa, Palentia, Seville, Toledo, &c.

Convents.] There are also in Spain 2141 convents and nunneries, containing at least 50,000 monks and nuns.

SPANISH GOLD COINS. l. s. d.

The old Spanish Pistole, 4 penny-weights, 8 grains	—	0	17	4
The new Seville Pistole, 4 penny-weights, 8 grains	—	0	17	4
The old Double Doubloon, 17 penny-weights, 8 grains	—	3	9	4
The old Double Pistole, 8 penny-weights, 16 grains	—	1	14	8
The new Seville or Double Pistole, 8 penny-weights, 16 grains	1	14	8	

The half and quarter of these in proportion.

SPANISH SILVER COINS. l. s. d.

The new piaster of Spain, or Seville piece of eight	—	0	4	6
The new Seville piece of eight	—	0	3	7
The Mexico piece of eight	—	0	4	5
The Pillar piece of eight	—	0	4	5
The Rial, or Bit	—	0	0	7

In Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, and all Spain, accounts are kept in Marvadies, an imaginary coin, thirty-four of which make a rial, and 272 a piaster, or piece of eight of Seville.

History.] That Spain was originally peopled by the Celtes, or Gomerians, who filled most of the Western parts of the world with inhabitants, is extremely probable; but at what time this event happened can by no means be ascertained from history. The generality of Spanish writers indeed affirm, that their country was peopled by Tubal, the fifth son of Japhet, who, according to them, reigned in Spain about the year of the flood 143, and died after a reign of fifteen years. From him they derive a long list of kings, the last of whom were the three Geryons, who were killed by Hercules: and, after that event, they introduce a much longer list of the successors of Hercules, and some others from Libya, who, they say, reigned without interruption till the year of the flood 1350, when the kingdom was invaded by the Celtes.

As these numerous kings performed nothing remarkable, we shall dismiss them, only with taking notice of some memorable invasions from other countries, which happened during the time they are said to have reigned.

reigned. In the time of *Romus*, the 19th from *Tubal*, the Phœnicians are said to have made their first entrance into Spain, and much about the same time the Grecian *Bacchus* made his appearance, who is said to have built the city of *Nebrisa*, now *Lebrixa*; and whose son *Iusus* is said to have given the name to *Lusitania*, at that time a province of Spain, but now the kingdom of Portugal.

This happened about 200 years before the destruction of *Troy* by the Greeks; and after the catastrophe of that city, *Teucer* the son of *Telamon*, one of the Grecian heroes, built *New Carthage*, now *Cartagena*, *Salamanca*, and some other places; while his companions likewise gave names to many towns and districts of the country.

About 700 years after the flood, Spain was invaded by the Gauls, and soon after by the Rhodians; who, in conjunction with the former nation, settled at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, and founded a city, which remained till the time of the Goths, by whom it was totally destroyed. This city was founded nineteen years after the invasion of the Gauls; and ten years after the founding of the city happened a prodigious conflagration of the woods on the Pyrenean mountains, which is still mentioned as a remarkable event by historians, under the name of *Incendium Pyrenæum*; and hence some people think the mountains were named *Pyrenæan* by the Greeks, from a word in their language signifying fire.

Besides the Egyptians, Greeks, Tyrians, and Phœnicians, the Babylonians also are said to have invaded Spain, and to have had the dominion of the country for thirteen years, under their celebrated monarch *Nebuchadnezzar*. But this last, is exceedingly improbable, and indeed it must be owned, that, before the invasion of the Carthaginians, the history of Spain is in a manner quite involved in obscurity and fable.

The Carthaginians are said to have been first invited into Spain by the Tyrians, in order to assist them against the natives, who were forming schemes for their expulsion. The richness of the country soon invited the Carthaginians to conquer for themselves; and though we know few of the particulars, it is certain, that they prevailed, and cruelly oppressed the natives, carrying off immense quantities of silver from the mines, which they obliged the natives to work. The Carthaginians, however, did not, in all probability, ever become masters of the whole country, even under *Hannibal*, who pushed his conquests much farther than any of his country-men had done. Their dominion at any rate was short-lived: *Hannibal* having invaded Italy, the Romans, in their turn, invaded Spain, and, meeting with no general capable of opposing them, finally expelled the Carthaginians.

The first care of the conquerors, as well as that of the Carthaginians before them, was to seize on all the treasure they could find; tho', according to all accounts, the mines must have been nearly exhausted before the Romans became masters of the country. We are told by *Aristotle*, that, when the Phœnicians first landed in Spain, they exchanged their naval commodities for such an immense weight of silver, that their ships could not carry it all off, even though they used it for ballast, and made their anchors and other implements of it.

Strabo informs us, that when the Carthaginians first came thither they found silver in such plenty, that all the household utensils, and even
mangers

mangers were made of it; insomuch that Posidonius said of Spain, that *Plutus*, the god of riches, had taken up his residence in it. The fortune of the Romans, however, was much worse than that of the Phœnicians, since, in the space of nine years, they could carry off no more than 111,542 pounds of silver, 4092 pounds of gold, besides coin and other things of value.

This last depredation seems to have quite impoverished the country, since we never afterwards hear it much celebrated for its wealth. The inhabitants, however, made several violent struggles for their liberty; and the wars of the Numantines, Cantabrians, and Asturians, will, to the latest posterity, be testimonies of the bravery of the Spaniards, and the barbarity and tyranny of the Romans. At last, under the emperor Augustus, the Cantabrians and Asturians, who had often revolted, were finally subdued, indeed almost exterminated, so that while the Roman empire continued, the native Spaniards were never able to make any struggle for liberty. On the decline of that empire, great part of Spain was seized by the Visigoths, who, attempting to extend their conquests on the Eastern side, were stopped by the Franks, or French, from whom they received such terrible overthrows that they were never afterwards able to recover themselves. The kingdom therefore continued in a weak and divided state till it was invaded by the Arabs. This happened A. D. 712, in the reign of the Khalif Al Walid. His general, Tarek Ebn Zarka, defeated Roderic, the last king of the Goths, reduced the city of Toledo, and made himself master of a considerable part of the kingdom. Being afterwards joined by Musa, another Arab general from Africa, they made themselves masters of most of the fortified places in the country, and obliged the inhabitants to pay tribute to the Khalif. In these expeditions they are said to have acquired spoils of immense value; among other things, a table, by the Arabian writers called, "The table of Solomon the son of David." They tell us, that it was made entirely of gold and silver, adorned with a border of pearls; but Roderic of Toledo says, it consisted of one entire stone, of a green colour, and prodigious size, having no fewer than 365 feet.

By these successes, the Arabs were encouraged to go on with the conquest of the whole country; but though the power of the Goths was brought very low, they could never be totally reduced. About the year 720, Don Pelago first distinguished himself against the Infidels, and took the title of king of Asturia.

His successes animated other Christian princes to take arms likewise; and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal, for many ages, were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars. In the mean while, every adventurer was entitled to the conquests he made upon the Arabs, (who, because they came from that part of Africa formerly called *Mauritania*, had the name of *Mauri* or *Moors*,) till Spain at last was divided into twelve or fourteen kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his son, Alphonso, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himself king. A series of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1475, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand king of Arragon, and Isabella, the heiress, and afterwards

wards queen of Castile, who took Granada, and expelled the Moors and Jews, to the number of 170,000 families, out of Spain.

The expulsion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America, which happened soon after, not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards most deplorably indolent, by reason of the vast wealth drawn from that country. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the Popish inquisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a safeguard against the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the house of Austria, and I. of Spain, afterwards emperor of Germany, succeeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. His ambition and bigotry engaged him in many unsuccessful enterprises; particularly in one against Algiers, in which he lost near 30,000 men, and would himself have fallen into the hands of the Infidels, had he not been rescued by the valour of the Maltese knights who served in his army. With the king of France also he was almost perpetually engaged in quarrels; and made the most treacherous and ungrateful returns to the unsuspecting generosity of Francis I. In Germany he supported the papists against the protestants, till at last, weary of all his pursuits, he resolved to retire into a convent.

Agreeable to this resolution, he resigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the presence of his principal nobility, to his son Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor. This dignity they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the house of Austria into two branches; Spain, with all its possessions in Africa and the new world, also the Netherlands, and some Italian states, remained with the elder branch, whilst the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia fell to the lot of the younger, which they still possess.

Philip II. was austere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cause of popery. The most remarkable part of his reign was his treatment of the protestants in the Netherlands, of whom he is said to have sacrificed 50,000 to his bigotry. He was married to Mary Queen of England, and sent out the famous Spanish Armada against Queen Elizabeth. His reign is also memorable for the revolt of the states of Holland, whom all the power of Spain could never afterwards reduce.

Portugal, after being governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian about the year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors in Africa; and, soon after, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Bargarza family pretended to a prior right. By this acquisition Spain became possessed of the Portuguese settlements in India, some of which she still holds.

The descendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had so totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almost unmolested in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once so tyrannical and insolent over the Portuguese, that in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed

placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne; and ever since Portugal has been a distinct kingdom from Spain.

The Kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, failing in the person of Charles II. who left no issue, Philip, duke of Anjou, second son to the dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, by virtue of his predecessor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht in 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. through a masterly train of politics, (for in his wars to support his grandson, he was reduced to the lowest ebb,) accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the East Indies, from the house of Austria to that of his own family of Bourbon; an event which proved fatal to the commerce of Great Britain, especially in the American seas, where a glaring partiality has been shewn to the French nation ever since.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife Elizabeth of Parma, Philip V. died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand VI. who, in 1759, died without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother, Charles III. the present king of Spain, son to Philip V. by his wife, the princess of Parma.

In consequence of the attachment shewn by the court of Spain to France, Britain hath always found herself engaged with both nations if she happens to fall out with one. This happened in the year 1739, when the quarrel was originally begun with Spain. In that war the French under Marshal Saxe carried every thing before them in the Netherlands, while the British were almost equally successful in Italy, and the Spaniards were reduced to the greatest distress, by the many defeats they received in that country. In 1755, when a quarrel happened between Britain and France, Spain also was led into an alliance with the latter; both, however, were exceedingly unsuccessful in every quarter of the globe; they were defeated in every engagement, and frustrated in every attempt. An invasion of Portugal being resolved on, the two powers found themselves baffled by a few battalions of English soldiers, and the taking of the Havannah, (the principal place on the island of Cuba in the West Indies,) so humbled the pride of Spain that they were glad of peace at any rate. This treaty was concluded at Paris in 1763, and the terms then granted were deemed by many more favourable for both France and Spain than they had reason to expect. Both nations, however, seem to have taken warning from their bad success at this time, and resolved to pursue the only method of rendering themselves equal to Britain, namely, by increasing their navy. To this they have adhered with so much perseverance, that Britain seems at last to be almost over-matched; yet we have reason to believe, that if those who have the management of the British navy shall use their utmost exertions, Britain will be able to re-assume her wonted superiority, before the issue of the present contest.

P O R T U G A L

IT is bounded by Spain on the North and East, and on the South and West by the Atlantic Ocean, being the most Westerly Kingdom on the continent of Europe; it is about 300 miles in length, and 100 in breadth, lying between thirty-seven and forty-two degrees of North latitude, and seven and ten of West longitude.

Ancient names and divisions.] This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called *Lusitania*. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It most probably is derived from some noted harbour or port, to which Gauls (for so strangers are called in the Celtic) resorted. By the form of the country it is naturally divided into three parts; the North, Middle, and South provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The North Division contains	Entre Minho,	Braga,
	Douro,	Oporto and Viana,
	Tralôs Montes,	Miranda and Villa Real,
	Beira,	Coimbra,
The Middle Division contains		Guarda, Castel, Rodrigo,
	Estremadura,	LISBON, 38-42. N. lat. 28-53. W. long.
The South Division contains	Entre Tayô,	Portalegre and Leira,
	Guadiana,	Ebora, or Evora,
	Alentejo,	St Ubes, Elvas, Beja,
	Algarva,	Lagos, Faro, Tavira, and Silves.

Mountains.] Portugal is as mountainous a country as Spain; and those mountains are usually barren rocks; the chief of them are the mountains which divide Algarva from Alentejo; those in Tralôs Montes, and the rock of Lisbon, at the mouth of the Tayô, called Cape Roça, or Sintra.

Rivers.] The rivers in Portugal are, 1. Guadiana. 2. Tayô, or Tagus, formerly celebrated for its golden sand. 3. Mondego. 4. Douro; and 5. Minho. All falling into the Atlantic Ocean; but in this country every brook is accounted a river. For their course, see Spain. There are, in some parts, hot baths, accounted fanative.

Promontories or Capes.] 1. Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego. 2. Cape Roça, at the North entrance of the river Tayô. 3. Cape Espithel, at the South entrance of the river Tayô; and 4. Cape St Vincent, on the South-West point of Algarva.

Bays.] Bays are those of Cadaon, or St Ubes, South of Lisbon, and Lagos-Bay in Algarva.

Air.] The air is not so pure as in Spain, neither is it so excessive.

hot as in some of their Southern provinces, lying, for the most part, upon the sea, and refreshed with breezes from thence; whereby the country is reckoned by some a proper retreat for those who are afflicted with consumptive disorders.

Soil and Produce.] The soil is not so fruitful as that of Spain, especially in corn, which they import from other countries, nor are their fruits so good, though they are of the same kind; they have plenty of wine, which is much esteemed, particularly in England. The flesh of their cattle and poultry is lean and dry, but they have abundance of good sea-fish.

Animals.] The horses in Portugal are brisk lively animals, as they are also in Spain, but of a slight make; the mules being much surer footed, are more used both for carriage and draught. Some black cattle and flocks of sheep are seen here, but they do not abound; and their flesh is generally lean and dry. Their hogs and kids are by much the best food.

Commerce and Manufactures.] These, within these few years, have taken a surprising turn in Portugal. An enterprising minister projected many new companies and regulations, which, though much for the interest of the country, have been again and again complained of, as unjust and oppressive to the privileges which the British merchants formerly enjoyed by the most solemn treaties.

The Portuguese exchange their wines, salt, fruits, and most of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk, and woollen, with a variety of straw-work, and are excellent in preserving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engross all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, such as her gold, diamonds, pearls, sugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Brazil; her ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of Africa and East-India; in exchange for the almost numberless manufactures, and the vast quantity of corn and salt-fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the English North-American colonies.

The Portuguese foreign settlements are, however, not only of immense value, but vastly improveable. They bring gold from their plantations on the East and West coasts of Africa, and likewise slaves for manufacturing their sugars and tobacco in Brazil, and their South-American settlements.

What the value of these may be, is unknown perhaps to the Portuguese themselves, but they certainly abound in all the precious stones, and rich mines of gold and silver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spanish dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold, sent from Brazil, amounts annually to 300,000*l.* sterling, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade carried on with other nations. The little shipping the Portuguese have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the slave trade, and a correspondence with Goa, their chief settlement in the East-Indies, and their other possessions there.

Constitution.]

Constitution.] The king of Portugal, as well as the king of Spain, is looked upon to be an absolute prince: the Cortes, or Three Estates, have long since sold their part in the legislature to the crown, and only serve to confirm or record such acts of state as the court resolves upon; to declare the next heir to the crown, when the king is pleased to nominate him, or to rectify treaties with those foreign princes who still esteem their consent of any weight.

King's titles.] The king's titles are, King of Portugal and the Algarvas, on this side, and beyond the seas in Africa, Lord of Guinea; and of the navigation, conquest, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, India, Brazil, &c. In the year 1748, the king of Portugal was dignified by the pope, with the title of His Most Faithful Majesty. The eldest son of Portugal is styled Prince of Brazil.

Arms.] The arms of Portugal are, argent, five escutcheons azure, placed cross-wise, each charged with as many besants as the first, placed saltier-wise, and pointed sable, for Portugal. The shield bordered gules, charged with seven towers or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The crest is a crown or, under the two flanches, and the base of the shield appears at the end of it; two crosses, the first flower-de-luce vert, which is for the order of Avis, and the second pattee gules, for the order of Christ; the motto is changeable, each king assuming a new one; but it is frequently these words, Pro Rege et Grege, (viz.) For the King and the People.

Nobility.] The degrees of nobility are the same as in Spain.

Orders of Knighthood.] Their orders of knighthood are, 1. That of Avis. 2. The order of Christ. 3. The order of St James; and, 4. The knights of John; who have all commanderies and estates annexed to their respective orders, as in Spain. The order of Malta has likewise twenty-three commanderies in Portugal.

Forces.] Neither their fleet nor land-forces are very formidable; they are now the most inconsiderable of all the maritime powers; and their land-forces are the worst militia in Europe.

In 1754 they had only twelve ships of war, fitted only as carriers or convoys, but unprovided for military action: the present king seems disposed to have a more respectable marine force, as well as a land one; to which he may doubtless be led from a reflection on his inability to defend his country, when it was lately invaded by the Spaniards and French.

Revenues.] The revenues of this crown, since the discovery of the Brazil mines, may be equal to those of any prince in Europe; but the amount of them cannot be known with any degree of certainty.

Taxes.] The customs and duties on goods exported and imported are a considerable part of the public revenues, and are usually farmed out by the crown from three years to three years. The duties are very high in Portugal, and could not be advanced without the utter

ruin of the people. Foreign merchandize pay twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fish from Newfoundland twenty-five per cent. Fish taken in the neighbouring seas and rivers, pay twenty-seven per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are sold, is ten per cent. The duty on snuff alone, amounts to 50,000 crowns. Besides which, the king draws a considerable revenue from the several orders of knight-hood, of which the king is grand master. And the pope, in consideration of the large sums he draws out of this kingdom on other accounts, gives the king the money arising by several bulls from the Holy See; as those for granting indulgences, licences to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c. And it is computed that the royal revenues, from the taxes alone, free of all pensions and salaries, may amount to three millions five hundred thousand crowns. The nobility are not taxed but upon extraordinary emergencies, and then not very high.

[*Inhabitants, Manners, and Customs.*] According to the best calculation, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants. By a survey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom, 3344 parishes, and 1,742,230 lay persons, (which is but 512 laity to each parish on a medium,) besides about 300,000 ecclesiastics of both sexes.

The modern Portuguese retain nothing of that adventurous enterprising spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. They have, ever since the Family of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues, though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them, and no people are so little obliged as the Portuguese are, to the reports of historians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakness of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of disobliging their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the source of pride and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude; and, above all, an intemperate passion for revenge. They are, if possible, more superstitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more state than the Spaniards themselves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practised, and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers. It is hard, however, to say what alteration may be made in the character of the Portuguese, by the expulsion of the jesuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them, but above all, by that spirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, is now so much encouraged by their court and ministry.

The Portuguese are not so tall, though rather better shaped than the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they do not now imitate so much as those of the English and French; and their nobility affect to be more gayly and richly dressed. The Portuguese ladies are thin and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, their features generally regular, and they walk very slow and gracefully. They are esteemed to be generous, moderate, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, but in general, more magnificent; and they are taught by their husbands, to exact from their servants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal personages. The furniture of the

the houses, especially of their grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain an incredible number of domestics, as they never discharge any who survive, after serving their ancestors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all; for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit always cross-legged on the ground.

Their learned men are so few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by those of the Portuguese themselves who have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by the Portuguese, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance, but what their success may be we shall not pretend to say; it is universally allowed, that the defect is not owing to want of genius, but of proper education. The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world besides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for some time after. Camoens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

Language.] The Portuguese language does not differ much from that of Spain. It is universally spoken on all the coasts of Africa and Asia, as far as China, but mixed with the languages of the several nations in that extensive tract of country. Their Pater Noster runs thus: *Padre nossa que estas nos Ceos, sanctificado seio o tu nome; venha o nos ten reyno, seia feita a tua vontade, assi nos Ceos, como na terra. O paonossa de cadatia, dano lo oie n' esodia. E perdoua nas seu- bor, as nossas dividas, assi como nos perdoamos a os nossas devedores. E nao nos dexes cabir em tentatio, mas libra nos do mal. Amen.*

Laws.] The laws of this country are all contained in three volumes Duodecimo; and founded on the civil law, and their particular customs.

Religion.] Their religion is popery in the strictest sense; and they have a patriarch, as well as archbishops and bishops, but all under the influence of the pope: The patriarch of Lisbon is usually a cardinal, and one of the most honourable families.

The Inquisition reigned here till lately with as great fury as it did once in Spain; the descendants of the Jews, who were compelled to profess Christianity, are usually the unhappy sufferers, on pretence they are not sincere, but remain Jews still in their hearts; which occasions great numbers of that nation to fly into England and Holland with their effects. Pretenders to witchcraft and the black art have been also frequently roasted with the Jews, at their Auto de Fe, annually: But the power of the Inquisition has, within these few years, been much abridged, being taken into the hands of the crown, from the ecclesiastics, and used as an engine of state.

Curiosities.] The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra. An aqueduct over a valley at Alcantara. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the royal family are buried, is very magnificent. A diamond found in Brazil, esteemed the largest in the world, in the possession of the present king.

Archbishopricks

Archbishopricks and Bishopricks.] The archbishopricks are, 1. *Lisbon*; 2. *Braga*; and, 3. *Ebora*. There are also ten bishopricks.

Universities.] The three universities are, 1. *Lisbon*; 2. *Ebora*; and, 3. *Coimbra*.

GOLD COINS OF PORTUGAL. l. s. d.

The double Moeda new coined,	1	6	10
The double Moedas as they come to England,	3	6	9
Johns,	3	12	0

The half and quarter of these in proportion.

SILVER COINS OF PORTUGAL. l. s. d.

The Crusado, or Ducat,	0	2	10
The Patac, or Patagon,	0	3	4

In Portugal, accounts are kept in Reas, an imaginary coin, a thousand whereof make a Milrea.

A Crusado of silver is 480 Reas.

History.] By the Latin writers this country is constantly filed *Lusitania*, the etymology of which name hath already been given in the history of Spain. We are not, however, to suppose that the ancient Lusitania had exactly the same limits with the modern kingdom of Portugal; neither doth it, even in ancient writers, always signify the same part of Spain: These boundaries, however, it is not now of any importance to ascertain. The inhabitants were remarkable for their valour; and, under the conduct first of Viriathus, by some said to have been originally a shepherd, by others a robber, and then of Sertorius, one of the Marian faction expelled from Rome, for some time withstood the whole Roman power; nor is it at all probable that they could have been subdued, had not both these generals been treacherously cut off.

After the death of Sertorius, Lusitania, as well as the rest of Spain, fell under the Roman power, and underwent the same revolutions with the other parts of that country; but in 1087, Don Alfonso, king of Leon, having taken the city of Toledo from the Moors, and being apprehensive that, in consequence of this achievement, he would be invaded by the whole force of that people from Barbary, sent to demand assistance from Philip I. of France, and the Duke of Burgundy, whose aunt he had married. His request was granted; and, among others, Henry, the brother of Hugh Duke of Burgundy, came to the court of Don Alfonso, where he was treated with great respect; and having distinguished himself by his valour, had the government of all the countries South of Galicia bestowed upon him, with commission for their improvement. In 1094, according to the Portuguese writers, this country was entirely given up to Henry by Don Alfonso, who gave him in marriage, at the same time, a natural daughter of his own named Donna Theresa; and thus was the modern kingdom of Portugal first founded.

It doth not, however, appear that Henry immediately assumed the title

title of King, though his consort Donna Theresa took that of Queen after his death, during the minority of her son Don Alfonzo: But in 1139, the Arabs in Barbary, being alarmed at the progress of the Christians in different parts of Spain, invaded Portugal with a great army. He was met by Don Alfonzo, with only a small body of forces, who entirely defeated his numerous army; and after this signal victory, that prince was saluted by his soldiers with the title of King of Portugal.

The history of this kingdom contains very few matters of importance; various wars took place, both with the Moors and Christians, till at last the kingdom of Portugal was enlarged to nearly its present extent. About the middle of the 15th century, the kings of Portugal thought of attacking the Moors of Barbary in their own dominions: This probably led them into the humour of making discoveries along the coast of Africa, which they continued to do with great success, till at last, in 1497, a passage was discovered to the East-Indies, by way of the Cape of Good Hope.

This proved a very great source of wealth to the Portuguese, and for some time made them considerable among the European nations, especially as they had formed settlements all along the Western coast of Africa, from which they drew great profits. Nothing less, however, would satisfy them than the entire conquest of Barbary, which at last proved the source of a terrible misfortune to the nation. In 1578, Don Sebastian the king was defeated and killed by the Moors; his army cut off all to about fifty men; his fleet taken or destroyed; and the kingdom left in a manner exhausted both of men and money.

From this deplorable state Portugal could not recover itself, but fell a prey to the ambition of Philip II. King of Spain; but the Portuguese could never be reconciled to the Spanish yoke, and in 1637, a scheme was formed of recovering their liberty under the conduct of John Duke of Braganza. Lisbon was surprised in 1640, the Spanish secretary killed, the vice-queen seized, and the government entirely new-modelled. From that time the kingdom of Portugal hath been distinct from Spain, nor indeed have the Spaniards made any great efforts to recover it, though the Portuguese, having greatly degenerated from the valour and spirit of their ancestors, seem capable of making but a feeble resistance. This was apparent in 1762, when France and Spain attempted to force the king of Portugal into an alliance with them against Britain. The consequence of this was an invasion; and so easily did the Spanish forces proceed in their conquests, that had it not been for their own indolence and inactivity, they might have been masters of Lisbon before the arrival of the British succours. By this reinforcement, however, the kingdom was freed from its danger at that time, and hath remained in a state of tranquillity ever since.

Lisbon, its chief city, is the greatest port in Europe, excepting London and Amsterdam: Oporto and Viand also are considerable ports, as well as St Ubes, where English ships frequently load with salt when they are bound to America.

This city was anciently called *Olishippo*, *Olishpo*, or *Ulyshippe*, supposed to be derived from a Phœnician word, signifying a pleasant bay, such as that on which Lisbon stands. It first became considerable in the reign of King Emmanuel, about the beginning of the 16th century.

and

and since that time hath been the capital of the Kingdom, the residence of its monarchs, the seat of the chief tribunals and offices, of the Metropolitan, a noble university, and the receptacle of the richest merchandize of the East and West-Indies. Its air is excellent, being refreshed by delightful sea-breezes, and those of the Tagus. The city extends for two miles along the Tagus, but its breadth is inconsiderable. Like ancient Rome, it stands on seven hills; but the streets in general are narrow and dirty, and some of them are very steep, neither are they lighted at night. Here is one of the finest harbours in the world; and there were a great number, not only of fine churches and convents here, but also of other public buildings, and particularly of royal palaces, and others belonging to the grandees: but the greatest part of them, and of the city also, were destroyed by a dreadful earthquake, on November 1st, 1755, from which it will require a long time to recover. Before this earthquake the inhabitants did not exceed 150,000.

The government of Lisbon is lodged in a council, consisting of a president, six counsellors, and other inferior officers. The harbour hath a sufficient depth of water for the largest ships, and room for 10,000 sail, without being crowded. For its security there is a fort at the mouth of the river on each side, and a bar across it, which renders the entrance very dangerous without pilots. Higher up, at a place where the river is considerably contracted, there is a fort called Torre de Belem, or the Tower of Belem, under whose guns all ships must pass in their way to the city; and on the other side are several more forts. In the centre of the city, upon one of the highest hills, stands the castle, which commands the whole. It is a large and ancient building, having always a garrison of four regiments of foot.

As some account of the earthquake in 1755 may not be disagreeable, we shall here subjoin a short one, collected from the most authentic relations of that dreadful event.

In 1750 there had been a sensible trembling of the earth felt in that city; for four years after, there had been an excessive drought, insomuch that some springs, formerly very plentiful of water, were dried up, and totally lost: the predominant winds were North and North-East, accompanied by various, though very small, tremors of the earth. The year 1755 proved very wet and rainy, the Summer cooler than usual, and for forty days before the earthquake the weather was clear, though not remarkably so. The last day of October, the sun was obscured by a remarkable gloominess in the atmosphere. The first of November, early in the morning, a thick fog arose, which was soon dissipated by the sun's heat; no wind was stirring, the sea was calm, and the weather as warm as in June or July, in Britain. At thirty-five minutes past nine, without the least warning, except a rumbling noise, not unlike the artificial thunder in our theatres, a most dreadful earthquake shook, by short but quick vibrations, the foundations of all the city, so that many buildings instantly fell; then, with a pause scarcely perceptible, the nature of the motion was changed, and the houses tossed from side to side, like a waggon violently driven over rough stones: this second shock laid almost the whole city in ruins, with prodigious havoc of the people. The earthquake lasted, in all, about six minutes: at the moment of its beginning, some persons

sons on the river, near a mile from the city, heard their boat make a noise as if she had run a-ground, though they were then in deep water; and at the same time they saw the houses fall on both sides of the river; the bed of the Tagus was in many places raised to the surface; ships were drove from their anchors, and dashed against one another with great violence; nor did their masters know whether they were a-float or a-ground. A large new quay was sunk to an unfathomable depth, with several hundreds of people who were upon it, and not one of their dead bodies was ever found. The bar was at first seen dry from shore to shore; but suddenly the sea came rolling in like mountains; and about Belom Castle, the water rose fifty feet perpendicular almost in an instant. About noon there was another shock; when the walls of several houses that yet remained, were seen to open from top to bottom more than a quarter of a yard, and afterwards closed again so exactly, that scarce any mark of the injury was seen.

At Colares, about twenty miles from Lisbon, and two miles from the sea, on the last day of October, the weather was clear, and uncommonly warm for the season; about four o'clock in the afternoon, there arose a fog, which came from the sea, and covered the vallies, a thing very uncommon at that season of the year; soon after, the wind changing to the East, the fog returned to the sea, collecting itself and becoming exceedingly thick: as the fog retired, the sea rose with a prodigious roaring. The first of November, the day broke with a serene sky, the wind continuing at East; but about nine o'clock the sun began to grow dim, and about half an hour after, was heard a rumbling noise like that of chariots; which increased to such a degree that it became equal to the explosions of the largest cannon: immediately a shock of an earthquake was felt, which was quickly succeeded by a second and third; at the same time several light flames of fire issued from the mountains, resembling the kindling of charcoal. In these three shocks the walls of buildings moved from East to West; in another situation, where the sea-coast could be viewed, there issued from one of the hills called the Tajo, a great quantity of smoke, very thick, but not very black; this still increased with the fourth shock, and afterwards continued to issue, in greater or lesser degrees: just as the subterraneous rumblings were heard, the smoke was observed to burst from the Tajo; and the quantity of smoke was always proportioned to the noise. On visiting the place from which the smoke was perceived to arise, no signs of fire were to be seen near it.

At Oporto, (near the mouth of the river Douro,) the earthquake began about forty minutes past nine. The sky was very serene, when a dreadful hollow noise, like thunder, or the rattling of coaches at a distance, was heard, and almost at the same instant the earth began to shake. In the space of a minute or two, the river rose and fell six feet, and continued to do so for four hours: it ran up at first with so much violence, that it broke a ship's hulls. In some parts the river opened, and seemed to discharge vast quantities of air; and the agitation of the sea was so great about a league from the bar, that air was supposed to have been discharged there also.

St Ubes, a sea-port town about twenty miles South of Lisbon, was entirely swallowed up, by the repeated shocks and vast perturbation of the sea. Huge pieces of rock were likewise detached from the promon-

tory at the West end of the town, which consists of a chain of mountains containing fine Jasper of different colours.

The shocks continued for several days after, and were felt in most parts of Europe: and the waters were agitated in many places in a most surprising manner.

As soon as an account of this melancholy accident arrived in England, the parliament voted the king 100,000*l.* for the relief of the sufferers.

All that part of Lisbon which was destroyed by the earthquake is now planned out in the most commodious manner. Several large squares, and many streets are now rebuilt. The streets form right angles, and are broad and spacious, the houses being elegant, uniform, and three stories high.

F R A N C E.

Boundaries. IT is bounded by the English Channell and the Netherlands, on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, on the East; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, on the South; and by the Bay of Biscay, on the West.

Divisions. This kingdom is divided, and the dimensions of the several parts distinctly specified in the following table, by Mr Templeman:

Names of Provinces.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
France.					
	Orleanois	21,050	230	180	Orleans
	Guienne	12,800	216	120	Bordeaux
	Gascogne	8,800	125	90	Aux or Augh
	Languedoc	13,175	200	115	Thoulouse
	Lyonois	12,500	175	130	Lyons
	Champagne	10,000	140	110	Rheims
	Bretagne	9,100	170	105	Rennes
	Normandy	8,200	155	85	Rouen
Papists.	Provence	6,800	95	92	Aix
	Burgundy	6,700	150	86	Dijon
	Dauphine	5,820	107	90	Grenoble
	Isle of France	5,200	100	85	PARIS { N. Lat. 48-50. E. Lon. 2-25.
	Franche Comptee	4,000	100	60	Besangon
	Picardy	3,650	120	87	Amiens
	Roussillon	1,400	50	44	Perpignan
Total—		131,095			

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To these may be added several fine provinces, which, since the Reformation, have been annexed to this kingdom by marriage, purchase, or conquest, viz. part of the Netherlands, which will be found under the title Netherlands, the dutchy of Lorrain, the countries of Alsace, Lower Navarre, Venaissin, and the island of Corsica; but the city of Avignon with the Venaissin, was in 1774 ceded to the Pope.

Mountains.] 1. The Alps, which divide France from Italy. 2. The Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain. 3. Vauze, which divides Lorrain from Burgundy and Alsace. 4. Mount Jura, which divides Franche Comte from Switzerland. 5. The Cevenues in the province of Languedoc; and, 6. Mount Dor, in the province of Auvergne.

Rivers and Lakes.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course North and North-West, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea at Nantes, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone, which rises in Switzerland, flows on South-West to Lyons, and then runs on due South till it falls into the Mediterranean, below Arles. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course, first, North-East, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the North-West, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English channel at Havre. To these we may add, the Soane, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which discharges itself into the Bay of Biscay at Rochefort. The Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the Eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarre in its passage. The Somme, which runs North-West thro' Picardy, and falls into the English channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs South, dividing France from Italy, falls into the Mediterranean, West of Nice. The Adour runs from East to West, through Gascoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biscay below Bayonne.

The vast advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which arises to France from those rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680: It was intended for a communication between the Ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immense expence for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass from thence to St Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Yper, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of 18 leagues, to the immense benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a mountain near Ales, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There

is another at Issoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Besse, into which if a stone is thrown, it causes a noise like thunder.

Ports, Bays, and Capes.] The principal ports and bays are the ports of Calais and Bologne in Picardy, now almost choked up. The port of Dieppe in Normandy. The ports of Havre de Grace, Honfleur, and Harfleur, at the mouth of the Seyne; and the capital town and port of Rouen, higher up the same river. The ports of Cayen, Bayeux, Cherbourg, Coutance, and Avranches, with the Capes of Barfleur and La Hogue, are in the same provinces.

The harbours or bays of St Maldes, Brieux, Tregeur, Morlaix, Brest, Audiern, Port L'Orient, Port Louis, Vannes, and Nantz, in Britany.

The ports of Rochelle and Rochfort, in Aunis, Bourdeaux and Bayonne in Guienne and Gascony.

The ports or bays of Narbonne and Bessiers in Languedoc; and the ports of Marseilles, Toulon, and Antibes, in Provence.

Air.] The air of France is temperate; neither so cold as the kingdoms of the North, nor so hot as Spain and Italy: It is reckoned by many to be more salubrious than that of Great Britain, though others reckon this a pretence invented by the French on purpose to entice strangers into their country. It is certain, that the weather is more clear and settled than in Britain.

Soil and Produce.] It produces excellent corn, wine, and oil, and almost every thing desirable in life; but there is not such plenty of corn and good pasture as in England; the Summer heats in many places burning up the grass, and making the fields look like a sandy desert; but then they abound in fruit, which has a more delicious flavour than ours.

Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too expensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Britany abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdau in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which serves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the best drab-cloths; and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-stone open all over the kingdom.

France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for soups than those of England. As to all kinds of seasoning and salads, they are more plentiful, and in some places better than in England; they being, next to their vines, the chief object of their culture. The province of Gastmois produces great quantities of saffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gascony, and other provinces of France, are so well known, that they need only to be mentioned. It is sufficient to observe, that though they differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent; particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage,

Hermitage, and Frontinlac; and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted. Oak, elm, ash, and other timber common in England, is found in France; but it is said, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhee, and about Rochfort on the coast of Saintoigne. Languedoc produces the herb called Kali, which when burnt makes excellent pot-alhes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English both in the management and disposition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon. There are several forests in France: Those of Orleans contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds; oak, elm, ash, &c.: That of Fountainbleau is almost as large: Besides which, there are many large woods in different provinces, but most of them so far from sea-carriage that they can be of little national utility.

Animals.] The animals are the same with those of England, excepting wolves and chamois-goats on their mountains; but neither the horses, nor neat cattle, are so large or so serviceable. The wool of their sheep is much coarser than that of the English, but their mountain-goats hair and skin are of the best kind. Fish are less plentiful, even on their sea-coasts, than in Britain.

Manufactures.] Their principal manufactures are lawn, lace, cambric, tapestry, woollen and silk manufactures, velvets, brocades, alammodes, leather, hard-ware, *viz.* gun-locks, sword-blades, and other arms; toys, hats, paper, thread, tapes, and other haberdashery wares.

Traffic.] Their foreign trade to Italy and Turkey from Marseilles and the South of France, and from Nantz, St Maloes, and other ports on the West of France, to the West and East Indies, and from the ports in the English Channel to the Baltic and the North, is very great; but in none have they succeeded more than in that of sugar, which, till near the conclusion of the late war, they had in a manner monopolized: their fisheries too were very considerable, especially whilst they enjoyed those on the coasts of Newfoundland and Cape Breton; and they have had, of late, a great share in the herring fishery on the coast of Great Britain and Shetland: so that, in fact, the commerce of France may be said to extend all over the globe.

Next to Henry IV. justly stiled the Great, the famous Colbert, a Scotsman, minister to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure as a trading, as she then did as a warlike people; but it is said, that the French do not naturally possess the perseverance necessary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, understand them better. It is to be considered, at the same time, that France, by her situation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, must be always possessed of a great inland and neighbouring trade, which enriches her, and makes her the most respectable power upon the continent of Europe.

The

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the reign of his grandson, Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the Protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to 4000, and their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French protestants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, are said to be now little inferior to those of England and Holland, assisted by the clandestine importation of English and Irish wool, and workmen from Britain.

It is a doubtful point whether the crown of France was a loser by its cession of Canada and part of Louisiana at the late peace: But the most valuable part of Hispaniola in the West-Indies, which she possessed by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a most improveable acquisition, and the most valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the West-Indies she likewise possesses the important sugar-islands of Martinico and Guadaloupe, St Bartholomew, Descada, and Marigalante. Her possessions in North-America since the late war, are only a small tract upon the Mississippi.

The French, till the commencement of the present war, had possessions in the East-Indies, of which Pondicherry and Mauritius were the principal; and had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have ingrossed more territory and revenues than are now in possession of the English; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their East-India company seems now to be at its last gasp. At present, says Mr Anderson, her inland-trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons; to Germany thro' Metz and Straßburg; to the Netherlands thro' Lisle; to Spain, (a most profitable one,) thro' Bayonne and Perpignan.

In the year 1739, France may be said to have been in the zenith of her commerce. Favoured by Spain, and dreaded by all the rest of Europe, her fleets covered the ocean; but she trusted too much to her own power. Cardinal de Fleury, who then directed her affairs, took no care to protect her trade by proper naval armaments; of that the greater it was, it became the more valuable prey to the English when war broke out. It is, however, the happiness of France, that her wounds are soon closed, and it is hard to say how soon she may recover all she has lost.

One great disadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profession of a merchant is less honourable than in England, and some other countries, so that the French nobility think it below them, which is the reason that the church, the law, and the army are so full of that order. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to distinguish their respective pieces, which must be very embarrassing, especially to strangers.

The institutions of public trading companies to Canada or New France, and the East and West-Indies, formerly cost the French crown immense sums, but we know none of them now subsisting, though, no doubt, their West-India trade, which is still very considerable, especially

ally in sugar, is, under proper regulations, prescribed by their councils of commerce.

Constitution.] As to the constitution of the government, it appears, from their history, that they were a free people until the reign of Lewis XIII.; and almost every province had its parliament, without whose concurrence no affairs of consequence was transacted. They are obliged chiefly to Cardinal Richieu for the destruction of that constitution, and rendering France an absolute monarchy during that reign. The females, by their sabbique law, are never suffered to ascend the throne.

The present parliament of France has no analogy with that of Great Britain. It was originally instituted to serve as a kind of law-assistant to the assembly of the States, which was composed of the great peers and landholders of the kingdom, and ever since it continued to be a law, and at last a money-court. The members however have had the courage of late to claim a kind of negative power on the royal edicts, which they pretend can be of no validity till registered by them. His Most Christian Majesty has often tried to invalidate their acts, and to punish their persons; but, despotic as he is, he has never ventured to inflict any farther punishment than a slight banishment, or imprisonment, for their most provoking acts of disobedience.

This ridiculous situation between power and privilege shews the infirmity of the French constitution, as the king dares not punish, and his parliament will not obey; but it discovers, at the same time, that the nation in general thinks the parliament its natural guardian against the court.

The kingdom of France is divided into thirty governments, over each of which is appointed a king's lieutenant-general, a superintendent, who pretty much resembles the lord lieutenants in England, but their executive powers are far more extensive. Distributive justice is administered by parliaments, chamber of accounts, courts of aid, presidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The parliaments were in number fifteen, those of Paris, Toulouse, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rheims, Pau, Metz, Besançon, Douay, Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras. Several of these parliaments are now united into one. The parliament of Paris is the chief, and takes the lead in all national business. It is divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber is appropriated chiefly for the trial of peers. The Tournelle civil judges in all matters of property above the value of 1000 livres. The Tournelle criminal receives and decides appeals from inferior courts in criminal cases. Besides these three capital chambers, there are five of requests for receiving the depositions of witnesses, and determining causes; pretty much in the same manner as our bills and answers in chancery and the exchequer.

On the 22d of February, 1771, after a long but ineffectual struggle with his parliaments, the French king issued an edict to the following effect: That as the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris was too extensive, reaching from Lyons, in the South of France, to Arras, in French Flanders, Northward; which great distance occasioned much expence to his subjects, who might be obliged to come to Paris for the prosecution of their law-affairs, his majesty had thought fit to branch the

the parliament of Paris into six different parliaments, under the denomination of *superior courts*, each parliament having similar jurisdiction; and that his majesty had appointed them their respective salaries, on the underwritten establishments, which they are to hold during pleasure:

A first president	2 substitutes	} no salary.
2 subaltern presidents	1 greffier civil	
20 counsellors	1 greffier criminal	
1 solicitor-general	24 attornies	
1 attorney-general	12 hussiers	

And it is conjectured, that all the parliaments of France are to be new-modelled after this regulation, which will totally extinguish the remaining liberties of that unhappy nation.

After the reader has been informed of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the soil in France; her numerous manufactures, and extensive commerce; her great cities, numerous towns, sea-ports, rivers and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wines, and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their sprightliness and gaiety;—he will undoubtedly conclude, that France is the most powerful nation, and her people the most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, however, appears to be the state of that nation at present.

True it is, that in a country so extensive and fruitful, her government finds immense resources in men and money; but, as if the French councils were directed by an evil genius, these resources, great as they are, by a wrong application have proved ruinous to the great body of the people. The most obvious causes of this national poverty seem to have arisen from the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, and the aggrandizement of their name. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the names of loans, free gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods more despotic and unwarrantable, such as raising and reducing the value of money as it suited their own purposes, national bankruptcies, and many grievous oppressions, were adopted; which gave the finishing blow to public credit, shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and agriculture, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

It appears too plain, from their late conquest of Corsica, as well as the general drift of their politics, that these national evils have not taught them wisdom or humanity, for while they thus grasp after foreign conquest, their own country exhibits a picture of misery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a most dismal and solitary appearance. The shops are mean beyond description; and the passengers, who saunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty streets, appear to be chiefly composed of priests and devotees, passing to or from mas; hair-dressers, and beggars. That this is the appearance of their towns and many of their cities, we may appeal to the observation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it possible to mention

mention a people more indigent than these citizens, we might describe the farmers and peasants. We have already mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and most extensive plains produce excellent crops of wheat, rye, and barley. Amidst this profusion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exist upon the gleanings; and his cattle, which are seldom numerous, pick a subsistence during the Summer months from the skirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, dispirited, and depressed, exhibits a spectacle of indigence hardly credible; and to see him plowing the ground with a lean cow, an ass, and a goat, yoked together, excites in an English traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled.

Many of the taxes and revenues in France are let out for a time to the best bidder, or, as it is there called, farmed; and these harpies, the farmers general, and their underlings, make no scruple of fleecing the people most unmercifully; and the residue, if any do remain, goes to satisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy; who, in their turn, are obliged, as well as the laity, to advance the government immense sums, under the names of tenths and free gifts, exclusive of which, they are now taxed with a certain sum, to be paid annually. It must be owned, however, that the present king of France seems to have adopted more liberal notions than those of his predecessors. His abolishing the feudal tenures of the crown, was certainly an action worthy of a monarch who regarded the liberty and welfare of his subjects.

King's titles.] The French King styles himself Lewis, by the grace of God, King of France and Navarre. The Pope, in his bull, gives him the title of Eldest Son of the Church; and the Most Christian King, as he is styled by foreigners; but his subjects, in writing or speaking of him, call him, the King, or his Majesty only; and, in speaking to him, give him the appellation of Sire.

Arms.] The arms of France are three flowers de-lis or, in a field azure, supported by two angels in the habits of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hands, with the same arms; the crest is an open crown: the whole under a grand azure pavilion, strewn with flowers de-lis or, and ermins, and over it a close crown with a double flower de-lis or; on the sides of it are flying streamers, on which are written the words used in battle, Montjoy, St Dennis; and above them, on the royal banner, Or Oriflame, *Lilia non labrant neque nent.*

Nobility.] The nobility of France consists of four degrees; 1. That of the princes of the blood. 2. The higher nobility. 3. The ordinary nobility; and, 4. The nobility lately made. He is denominated First Prince of the Blood, who stands next the crown after the king's children.

The dukes and counts, peers of France, after the princes of the blood, have the precedence among the higher nobility. Antiently there were but six ecclesiastic and six lay-peers; three of the ecclesiastics were dukes, &c. the archbishop of Rheims, and the bishops of Langres and Leon; the other three ecclesiasticks were counts, viz. the bishop of Beauvois, the bishop of Chalons, and the bishop of Noy.

ons. The three lay-dukes were the Duke of Burgundy, the Duke of Normandy, and the Duke of Guienne; and the three counts were those of Campaigne, Flanders, and Thoulouse: the lay-peerages have been re-united to the crown, except Flanders, which at present has another sovereign; and the kings of France have since created many dukes, counts, and peers, without limiting them to any certain number; and these take place according as they are registered in parliament.

Knight:.] The knights of the order of the Holy Ghost also are ranked with the higher nobility; as also the governors of provinces, and lieutenants-general.

The three orders of knighthood in France, are the order of St Michael, the order of the Holy Ghost, and the order of St Lewis. The order of St Michael was instituted in the year 1469, by Lewis XI. in honour of St Michael the archangel, and consisted of thirty-six knights at first, but has since been enlarged to 100. It is not esteemed very honourable at present, only it is necessary a person should be admitted of this order, before he receives that of the Holy Ghost.

The order of the Holy Ghost was instituted, in 1578, by Henry III. King of France and Poland. This order is composed of 100 persons, without including the sovereign, and is conferred on the princes of the blood, peers, and other great men of the first quality.

The order of St Lewis was instituted in the year 1693, by Lewis XIV. and was designed purely for the encouragement of the generals and officers of the army.

Forces:.] The forces of France, in time of peace, are about 200,000, and in time of war 400,000, besides a formidable fleet of men of war; they had not less than 100 ships of the line in the reign of Lewis XIV. Their royal navy was almost destroyed in the late war, but since that time it hath been augmented to above 100 ships, of which two thirds are line of battle ships.

Revenues:.] The ordinary revenues of the crown amount to between seven and eight millions sterling, and they are enlarged at pleasure, by raising the value of the coin, compounding state-bills, or debentures, and other arbitrary measures. For, after the long war in the beginning of the present century, the crown of France was indebted about 100 millions sterling; and yet the regent, (in their present king's minority,) within about four years, reduced their debt to about seventeen millions; but as this was done by altering the value of their money, and by other acts of despotism, such a reduction of the debt was a breach of the national honour, not much unlike the bankruptcy of a profligate: and since the end of the late war, they being reduced to nearly the above-mentioned circumstances, a method, almost similar to the former, was taken to render the revenue less incumbered; but the finances, it is said, are now put upon a better footing, and greater œconomy to subsist in every department.

Taxes:.] The usual method of raising taxes is by the taille, or land-tax.

The

The taillon, which the nobility are obliged to pay as well as the commons, is only another species of land-tax.

By aids, which we call customs on merchandize.

By gabels which is a tax upon salt.

By a capitation or poll-tax.

By the tenths of estates and employments.

By the sale of all offices of justice.

By a tenth, or free gift of the clergy.

The court have lately required the clergy to give in the full value of their estates, that they may judge what proportion their free gift bears to the taxes paid by the laity.

Lastly, by confiscations and forfeitures.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions. } If we believe the Abbe D'Espilly, and other French writers, the country contains 22,000,000 of inhabitants; but the calculation is certainly overstrained by at least 6,000,000, and of the remainder near 200,000 are ecclesiastics. The populousness of France in former times cannot be disputed, but it is certain that the number of her natives, and those too the most useful to the public, have, during the last and present century, been greatly reduced; first, by the revocation of the edict of Nantz †, by Lewis XIV. and other religious persecutions; secondly, by her perpetual wars; thirdly, by her emigrants to her colonies. Some writers make perhaps their numbers too low, when they fix them at 13,000,000. It is evident, however, that there is a great defect of population in their interior provinces.

The French, in their persons, are rather of lower stature than the neighbouring nations; but are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations in general from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their sprightly wit, than personal beauty; the lower class are, in general, remarkably ordinary, and best described by being contrasted with British women of the same rank.

The nobility and gentry accomplish themselves in the academical exercises of dancing, fencing, and riding: in the practice of which they excel all other nations in skill and gracefulness. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-saddle, and monstrous curb-bridle, in that exercise; and accommodate themselves to the English manner. The landlords are as jealous of their game as they are in Britain, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors. A few of the French princes of the blood, and nobility, are more magnificent in their palaces and equipages than any of the English; but the other ranks of life are despicable, when compared to the riches, elegance, and opulence, not only

† In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a Protestant, and justly stiled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, passed the famous edict of Nantz, which secured to the Protestants the free exercise of their religion, but this edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the preceding persecutions, drove that people to England, Holland, and other Protestant countries, where they established the silk manufactures, to the great prejudice of their own country.

only of the English nobility and gentry in general, but even of the middling ranks.

The genius and manners of the French are well known. An excessive levity is their predominant character, and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakness. It supports them under misfortunes, and impells them to actions to which true courage inspires other nations. This character, however, is conspicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers, for the common soldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroism. Hence it has been observed, with great justice, of the French and British, that the French officers will lead, if their soldiers will follow, and the British soldiers will follow, if their officers will lead. This same principle of vanity is of admirable use to the government, because the lower ranks, when they see their superiors cheerful, as in the time of the last war with Britain under the most disgraceful losses, never think that they are unfortunate; thence proceeds the passive submission of the French under all their calamities.

The French affect freedom and wit, but their conversation is commonly confined to fashionable dresses and diversions. Their diversions are much the same with those of the English, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair, degenerates into gross foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexes are seldom attended with that criminality which, to people not used to their manners, they seem to indicate; nor are the husbands so indifferent as we are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are excessively credulous and litigious; and of all the people in the world, they bear adversity and reduction of circumstances with the best grace; but in prosperity they are intolerably insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious. An old French officer is an entertaining and instructive companion, and indeed the most rational being of all their gentry.

The French may be characterized as being well mannered, rather than well bred. They are indiscriminately complaisant and officious, but they seldom know how to adjust their behaviour to the situation and character of those they converse with. All is a repeated round of politeness, which for want of discernment becomes affected, often ridiculous, and always disgustful to sentimental people.

The French have been censured for insincerity; but this is a fault which they possess in no greater degree than their neighbours, and the imputation is generally owing to their excess of civility, which throws a suspicious light upon their candour. In private life, they have just as much virtue as other European nations, and have given as many proofs of generosity and disinterestedness; but this is far from being the character of their government, which has prepossessed the English against the whole nation; and when the French are no longer formidable, they will be no longer thought faithless.

It is doing them no more than justice to acknowledge, that they have given a polish to the ferocious manners and even virtues of other nations. They have long possessed the lead in taste, fashion, and dress, but it seems now to be on the decline, and they begin to think, that

that the English are not barbarians. This alteration of opinion has not however taken its rise from their wits, their learned men, their courtiers, nor the middle ranks of life. The superior orders of men in France are of a very different cast from those below them. They see with indignation the frivolousness of their court, and however complying they may appear in public, when retired, they keep themselves sacred from its follies. Independent by their rank and fortunes, they think and act for themselves. They are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They saw, during the late war, the management of their armies, their finances and fleets, with silent indignation, and their researches were favourable to the English. The conclusion of the late peace, and the visits which they have since paid to England, have improved that good opinion; the courtiers themselves have fallen in with it; and, what some years ago would have been thought incredible, people of fashion in France now study the English language, and imitate them in their customs, amusements, dress, and buildings. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, Richardson, and many others of the last and present century, are sacred among the French of any education; and, to say the truth, the writings of such men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raise the name of Great Britain to that degree in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more universal, and even a necessary study among foreign nobility.

But we cannot quit this article of the manners and customs of the French, without giving a more minute view of some distinguishing peculiarities observable among that whimsical people in private life, and this from the remarks of an ingenious and well-informed writer of the present age.

The natural levity of the French, says he, is re-inforced by the most preposterous education, and the example of a giddy people engaged in the most frivolous pursuits. A Frenchman is by some priest or monk taught to read his mother tongue, and to say his prayers in a language he does not understand. He learns to dance and to fence by the masters of those sciences. He becomes a compleat connoisseur in dressing hair, and in adorning his own person, under the hands and instructions of his barber and valet-de-chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the fiddle, he is altogether irresistible. But he piques himself upon being polished above the natives of any other country, by his conversation with the fair sex. In the course of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a set of phrases, ridiculous even to a proverb; and these he throws out indiscriminately to all women without distinction, in the exercise of that kind of address which is here distinguished by the name of gallantry. It is an exercise, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in consequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their customs and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thousand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whose time hath been spent in making more valuable acquisitions. He enters, without ceremony,

ceremony, a lady's bed-chamber, while she is in bed, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and advises where to lay on the paint. If he visits her when she is dressed, and perceives the least impropriety in her coëffure, he insists upon adjusting it with his own hands. If he sees a curl, or even a single hair amiss, he produces his comb, his scissors, and pomatum, and sets it to rights with the dexterity of a professed friseur. He squires her to every place she visits, either on business or pleasure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himself necessary. In short, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit maitre* is the most impertinent: and they are all *petits maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbiere*, (barber's boy,) covered with meal, who struts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

A Frenchman will sooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the soldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has descended to the lowest class of people. The boy who cleans shoes at the corner of a street, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an ass wears his hair *en queue*, tho', perhaps, he has neither shirt nor breeches.

I shall only mention one custom more, which seems to carry human affectation to the very farthest verge of folly and extravagance; that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally supposed that part of the fair sex, in some other countries, make use of *sard* and vermilion for very different purposes, namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I shall not inquire whether it is just and honest to impose in this manner on mankind; if it is not honest, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and shews, at least, a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on as the fashion in France prescribes to all the ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the *sard* or *white*, with which their necks and shoulders are plastered, it may be in some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown, or fallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but ideas of disgust and aversion. Without this horrible mask no married lady is admitted to court, or to any polite assembly, and it is a mark of distinction which none of the lower classes dares assume.

The French dress in cities and towns is so variable, that it is almost impossible to describe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their constantly changing their fashions is of infinite service to their manufactures. With regard to the English, they possess one capital superiority, which is, that the cloaths of both sexes, and their ornaments, are at least one third cheaper.

When a stranger arrives at Paris he finds it necessary to send for the

the taylor, peruquier, hatter, shoemaker, and every other tradesman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He must even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, tho' at the risk of his life, suit his cloaths to the mode of the season. For example, though the weather should be ever so cold, he must wear his *habit d'ete*, or *demit saison*, without presuming to put on a warm dress before the day which fashion has fixed for that purpose; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuse a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if possible, still more subject to the caprices of fashion. All their sacks and negligees must be altered and new trimmed. They must have new caps, new laces, new shoes, and their hair new cut. They must have their tasseties for the Summer, their flowered silks for the Spring and Autumn, their sattins and damasks for Winter. The men too must provide themselves with a camblet suit trimmed with silver for Spring and Autumn; with silk cloaths for Summer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet, for Winter; and he must wear his bag-wig *a la pigeon*. This variety of dress is absolutely indispensable for all those who pretend to any rank above the mere vulgar; all ranks, from the king downwards, use powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their superiors in the fripperies of fashion. The common people of the country, however still retain, without any material deviation, the old-fashioned modes of dress, the large hat, and most enormous jack-boots, with suitable spurs, and this contrast is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, physicians, and merchants, generally dress in black; and it has been observed, that the French nation, in their modes of dress, are in some measure governed by commercial circumstances.

Like the other nations of Europe, this nation was for many centuries immersed in barbarity. The first learning they began to acquire consisted in a subtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the study of the Greek and Roman writers, which first arose in Italy, diffused itself among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary pursuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, whose labours are well known and highly esteemed all over Europe. The two Stephens, in particular, are names which every real scholar mentions with respect. It was not, however, till the 17th century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The *Academie Françoise* was formed for this purpose; and though their labours, considered as a body, were not so successful as might have been expected, some particular academicians have done great service to letters. In fact, literary copartnerships are seldom very successful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the present case. The academy published a dictionary for improving the French language; it was universally despised: Furetieres, a single academician, published another; which met with universal approbation.

The protection Lewis XIV. gave to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation did not exceed 12,000*l.* per annum, gained him more glory than

than all the military enterprizes upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign are too numerous to be mentioned: but all the establishments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of science, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whose interest it is to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and ministry, who have an equal interest in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every sound principle of government. The French have not therefore so many good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects, as have appeared in Great-Britain.

In the Belles Lettres and miscellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place D'Argens and Voltaire as the most considerable.

Before Newton appeared in England, Descartes was the greatest philosopher in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many of the present age are excellent mathematicians; particularly D'Alembert, who, with all the precision of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the present century, the French have vied with the English in natural philosophy. Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, were he not still more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature; and under this view his natural history is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at present to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr Gruee, for portraits and conversation-pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in England, or any other nation. Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our superiors in architecture, though we now bid fair for surpassing them in this art.

We shall conclude this head with observing, that the French Cyclopedie, or General Dictionary of arts and sciences, which was drawn up by the most able masters in each branch of literature, in twenty-eight volumes in folio, (six of which are copper-plates,) under the direction of Messieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, is the most complete collection of human knowledge we are acquainted with.

[*Antiquities and Curiosities.*] Few countries, if we except Italy, can boast of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and consequently, compared to them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharamond; and some of them when broken open were found to contain ornaments and jewels of great value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal

triumphal arches; but the one most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones by Caius Marius and Lucatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vast delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred, some of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found at Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. Nîmes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raised in the Augustan age by the Roman colony of Nîmes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains for the use of that city, and is as fresh to this day as Westminster bridge: it consists of three bridges, or tires of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other stupenduous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients, of this circumstance, that all streams, when conveyed in pipes, will rise as high as their fountains. Many other ruins of antiquity are to be found at Nîmes, but the chief is the temple of Diana, whose vestiges are still remaining. The amphitheatre called Les Arenes, which is thought to be the finest and most entire of the kind of any in Europe; above all, the house erected by the Emperor Adrian, called the Maison Carrée. The architecture and sculpture of this building is so exquisitely beautiful, that it enchants even the most ignorant, and is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris may be seen the remains of the palace of Thermæ; which was built by the Emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, about the year 356, after the model of the baths of Dioclesian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large salloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free stone and bricks.

At Arles, in Provence, is to be seen an obelisk of oriental granite, which is fifty-two feet high, and seven feet diameter at the base; and all of one stone. Roman temples are frequent in France. At Lyons are the remains of that built by the sixty nations in Gaul, in honour of Augustus and the Romans. But the most remarkable are those in Burgundy and Guienne. The passage cut thro' the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, measuring twenty inches in diameter, weighing twenty-one pounds, and containing the story of Scipio's continuance, is thought to be co-eval with that great general. Near Poitiers is a stone of an enormous size, supported by four pillars; but the occasion of its erection is not known. In short, the different monuments of antiquity to be found in this country, particularly those in the cabinets of the curious, are so numerous, that it would be vain to attempt an account of them.

Language.] The language of France is a mixture of Latin and High Dutch, or German, (the last of which was introduced by the Franks,) but the Latin still prevails most. It has been very much improved and refined by the academy at Paris of late years, and is spoken in most of the courts in Europe. The Lord's prayer in French

is as follows: *Nostre pere qui es au ciel, ton nom soit sanctifié; ton regne vienne, ta volonté soit fait sur le terre comme dans le ciel; donne nous a l'avenir chaque jour notre pain: pardonne nous nos offenses comme nous pardonnons a ceux qui nous ont offenses; ne nous mets pas dans la tentation, mais delivre nous du mal; puisque le regne, la puissance, & la gloire t'appartiennent pour jamais. Amen.*

Religion.] The established religion is Popery, since the Protestants were suppressed in 1684; yet they never have admitted the Inquisition: and the pope's supremacy was rejected until the reign of Lewis XV. but, according to the constitution Unigenitus, the pope's supremacy seems now to be established, and every ecclesiastic is obliged to subscribe that constitution; though every parliament, as well as the clergy, have opposed this measure with great warmth. At present, their priests refuse to administer the sacrament to those who do not subscribe the constitution Unigenitus, which advances the pope's power above that of the crown, and the king often takes part with the priest against his own prerogative; this several parliaments of the kingdom addressing his majesty against, the parliament of Paris was on that account banished; and it is expected this will occasion a breach between the clergy and laity; however, a reformation in religion is not likely to be soon brought about, because the French clergy in general are very tenacious of the papal decrees in matters of faith; and in some parts, they are such extreme bigots, that the secular power has been most barbarously prostituted to gratify the mere suspicions of some heated zealots: and the Protestants, of which there are many in the Southern provinces, frequently experience the effects of the power of a clergy most warmly espousing the execution of the severest penalties denounced against heretics.

Archbishopricks.

Bishopricks Suffrages.

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|---------------|--|
| 1. LYONS. | Autun, Langres, Macon, Challons. |
| 2. SENS. | Trois, Auxerre, Nevers. |
| 3. PARIS. | Chartres, Orleans, Meaux. |
| 4. RHEIMS. | { Soissons, Leon, Challons, Noyons, Beauvois,
Amiens, Senlis, Boulogne. |
| 5. ROUEN. | { Bayeaux, Eureux, Averanches, Seez, Lisieux, Coutances. |
| 6. TOURS. | { Mans, Angers, Rennes, Nantz, Cornouaille,
Vannes, St Malo, St Brien, Triguier, St Paul de Leon, Dole. |
| 7. BOURGES. | Clermont, Limoges, St Fleur, La Puy, Tulle. |
| 8. ALBY. | Castres, Mende, Rodez, Cahors, Vahors. |
| 9. BOURDEAUX. | { Poitiers, Saintes, Angoulesme, Perigeux,
Agen, Condom, Sarlat, Rochelle, Lucin. |
| 10. AUCH. | { Acquis, Aire, Bazas, Bayonne, Comminges,
Conserans, Lectour, Mesear, Oleron, Tarbes, |
| | 11. THOULOUSE. |

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| 11. TROULOUSE. | { Pamieres, Miropoiz, Montauban, Labour,
St Papoul, Lombes, Rieux. |
| 12. NARBONNE. | { Carcassone, Alet, Beziers, Adge, Lodeve,
Montpelier, Nismes, Ufex, St Pons, Perpignan. |
| 13. ARLES. | { Marseilles, Orange, St Paul de Chateau,
Thonlon. |
| 14. AIX. | Apte, Reiz, Frejus, Gap, Sisteron. |
| 15. VIENNE. | Valence, Die, Grenoble, Viviers, Mourienne. |
| 16. BESANÇON. | Beclay, Brasil, Lausanne in Switzerland. |
| 17. EMBRUN. | Digne Glandeve, Vence, Senez, Grace, Nice. |

The Archbishop of Lyons is Count and Primate of France.

The Archbishop of Sens is Primate of France and Germany.

The Archbishop of Paris is Duke and Peer of France.

The Archbishop of Rheims is Duke and Peer.

And the Archbishop of Rouen is Primate of Normandy.

Universities and public Colleges.] These literary institutions have received an irreparable loss by the expulsion of the Jesuits, who made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France. It is not within our plan to describe the different governments and constitutions of every university or public college in France, but they are in number twenty-six, as follow; Aix, Angers, Arles, Avignon, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Dol, Douay, Fleche, Montauban, Montpelier, Nantz, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Mouson, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, and Valence.

Academies.] There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones; that called the French Academy, that of inscriptions, and that of the sciences; one of painting and sculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horse and other military exercises.

Convents.] According to computation there are about 750 great convents of monks, and 200 of nuns, in France, and about 10,000 lesser convents: there are in all upwards of 200,000 monks and nuns; and that the revenues of the clergy and religious houses of all kinds exceed six millions sterling per annum.

FRENCH GOLD COINS. 1. s. d.

The old Louis d'Or of France is valued at	_____	0 16 9
The half and quarter in proportion	_____	
The new Louis d'Or, or Guinea	_____	1 0 0
The half and quarter in proportion	_____	

FRENCH SILVER COINS.

The old Ecu of France, being sixty Sols Tournois	_____	0 4 6
The new Ecu, being five Livres, or 100 Sols	_____	0 5 0
S 2		The

The half and quarter in proportion. They have also pieces of three 1-half and five Sols, and a Liard, the fourth part of a Sol.

Accounts are kept in France by Livres, Sols, and Deniers; one Livre is twenty Sols, and one Sol twelve Deniers; but by late arrears their Livres are reduced to half their value.

History.] The history of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly interesting to a British reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul, or that on the Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans; and after a brave resistance, was annexed to their empire by Julius Cæsar, about forty-eight years before Christ. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who subdued, but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themselves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankland, were a collection of several people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. The Salii had a rule, which the rest of the Franks are said to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the succession of the throne, whereby all females were excluded from the inheritance of sovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the original natives to a state of slavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and now to their several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and of the nobility.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks was Clovis, who began his reign anno 468, from which period we find them generally engaged in domestic broils or in foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope: he divided his empire by will among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France; and about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to embrace Christianity. This laid the foundation

foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William Duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almost perpetual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithstanding their numbers, and the assistance they received from Scotland.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown in two respects; in the first place, it carried off hundreds of thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king: in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But passing over the dark ages of the crusades, their expeditions to the Holy Land, and wars with England, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swiss, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost the imperial crown, Charles V. of the house of Austria, and king of Spain, being chosen. Francis made some dazzling expeditions against Spain; but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power; by which he disoblged the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a confederacy against him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions was afterwards the source of many wars between him and the emperor; he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithstanding the variety of disagreeable events during his reign, was in a flourishing condition. He was succeeded by his son Henry II. who, upon the whole, was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was so well served by the duke of Guise, that though he lost the battle of St Quintin, against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who have never since had any footing in France. He married his son the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this scheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomery.

He was succeeded by his son, Francis II. a weak, sickly, inactive prince, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, who had

adopted

adopted the cause of Hugonotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death, for a conspiracy against the court, but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the Protestants, was treacherously murdered by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was thought to have been instigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the Protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded each other. At last the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry the young king of Navarre a Protestant, and the French king's sister. The heads of the Protestants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if possible, in one night. This project proved but too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the diabolical massacre, in which, it is said, the admiral and about 30,000 Protestants were in one night most cruelly murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France: this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573, with the Protestants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had, some time before, been chosen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he, with some difficulty, escaped to France, where he took quiet possession of that crown by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had lost. The heads of the Protestants could raise armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A holy league was formed for the defence of the Catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. The Protestants, under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon the king's brother, called the German princes to their assistance; which occasioned a sixth civil war in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himself lord of the Netherlands. This civil war was finished within the year, by another sham peace. The king, ever since his accession to the throne, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, though he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscriptions of the protestants, and the setting aside from the succession the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guise, the idol of the Roman Catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had some distant pretences. A seventh civil war broke out in the year 1579, and another

in 1585, both of them to the disadvantage of the Protestants, thro' the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that after inviting him and his brother the cardinal in a friendly manner to court, they were, by his majesty's orders, and under his eye, both basely assassinated. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited the crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the Protestants; but while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was, in his turn, assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties which Henry IV. king of Navarre *, head of the house of Bourbon, and next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter, on account of his religion, before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guise; who drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, and a Roman catholic, whom they proclaimed king of France. This party being strongly supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions, performed by the courage and magnanimity of the illustrious Henry, seemed only to make him more conspicuously unfortunate, so much so, that both he and his little court were sometimes without common necessities. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection lay against him but that of his religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselves; and the French nation, at the same time, being in general jealous of the Spaniards, who had availed themselves of the public distractions; Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself a Roman catholic. This was a measure of necessity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. This complaisance wrought wonders in his favour; and having, with great difficulty, obtained absolution from the Pope, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for several years with various fortunes. In 1598, he published the famous edict of Nantz, which secured to the Protestants the free exercise of their religion; and the next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chastised the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself, with wonderful attention and success, (assisted in all his undertakings by the renowned Sully his minister,) to cultivate the happiness of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk, the benefit of which France enjoys at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and, in a great measure, secured the happiness of his people, he formed

connections

* A small kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of which Henry's predecessors had been unjustly dispossessed of the greatest part, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

connections with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army; others say (for his intention does not clearly appear) that he designed to have formed Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, on purpose to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her, for protection, into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in those conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon this grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach in the streets of Paris, by one Ravilliac, (like Clement,) another young enthusiast, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. deservedly surnamed the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richelieu, who, by his resolute and bloody measures, put an end to the remaining liberties of France, and to the establishment of the Protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle; though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, endeavoured both by his fleet and armies to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, 400 villages, 2000 churches, 2000 monasteries, and 10,000 houses, were burnt, or otherwise destroyed during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though he himself was an enthusiast for popery, supported Gustavus Adolphus and the protestants of Germany, against the house of Austria; and who, after quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, died some months before Lewis XIII. in 1643. Lewis left his son, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's nonage, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the administration of his mother, Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Condé was sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from being a Protestant had turned Papist. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domestic wars; but the queen mother having made choice of Mazarine for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms, even of Cromwell, against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually, that when Lewis assumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to commit the administration of the internal police of his kingdom to Colbert, whom we have already mentioned, who, by his wife and prudent management, raised the glory, com-
merce,

merce, and manufactures of this country, to a pitch far exceeding that of any former reign.

Our narrow limits will by no means admit of entering into a circumstantial detail of this reign. Bigotry and ambition were the ruling passions of Lewis: through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness: by the latter, he involved himself in war with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. We have already mentioned his impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantz, which obliged the French Protestants to take shelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they established the silk manufactories, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himself the divine honours paid to the Pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his conveniency, and at last raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe, at the head of which was King William III. of England. He was, however, so well supported, that he made head for some years against this alliance; but having at last provoked the English by his repeated infidelities, their arms, under the duke of Marlborough, and those of the Austrians, under prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning of it was splendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thousand lives. His ambition being thus effectually humbled, he at last, old as he was, formed the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head; but he was prevented from attempting this project, by the British imprudently withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He survived his deliverance but two years, for he died on the first of September, 1715.

This ambitious and enterprizing prince was succeeded by his great grandson Lewis XV. the history of whose reign till the year 1744, contains nothing memorable. He, at this time, made an alliance with the king of Spain against Great Britain, with whom that power was then at war. Lewis was, besides, involved in a war with the house of Austria, from a desire he had of re-instating his father-in-law, Stanislaus, on the throne of Poland, but in this he failed. Great Britain too, in consequence of her connections on the continent, found it necessary to send an army to the Netherlands, to act in conjunction with those of the Austrians and Dutch: the Duke of Cumberland was appointed general of the allied army, while Marischal Saxe commanded that of the French. In this war the allies were very unfortunate: they were first routed in a great battle at a village called Fontenoy, near Tournay in Flanders, in which they lost 12,000 men, though it is said the French sustained fully as great a loss. In this engagement the latter shewed great inhumanity and cruelty, by using broken glass, rugged pieces of iron, &c. instead of bullets; of these the Duke of Cumberland sent to Marischal Saxe, after the battle, a large quantity which had been extracted from the wounds of his soldiers.

After this battle, the allied army were not only defeated in every engagement, but almost in every skirmish. All the barrier-towns which had been given to the united provinces by the treaty of Utrecht were now taken one by one. The Dutch, who were only auxiliaries, beheld with astonishment the irresistible progress of the French general, and were now apprehensive of being made principals in a war which they were every day more and more unable to support. At last they were thrown into the utmost consternation by the taking of Bergen-op-zoom in 1747. This defeat, however, fortunately brought about the treaty of Aix-la-chapelle in 1748, when the contending parties were put precisely on the same footing as at the commencement of hostilities, not a single advantage being gained by either, after an immense expence of blood and treasure.

The peace which now took place was of short duration. The ambition of France prompted her to make incroachments on the British settlements in North-America, where indeed the war may be said never to have been fully ended: This produced a new declaration of hostilities in 1755. At the same time, a most violent flame was kindled on the continent: Austria, Russia, and Sweden, were leagued against the king of Prussia, who was supported by Britain, the inveterate enemy of France. The latter attacked and conquered the Electorate of Hanover, and obliged the Duke of Cumberland, who commanded the British and Hanoverian army, to capitulate and make a treaty with the French general Marischal D'Etrees. Immediately after this capitulation (called the convention of Closter-seven,) the Duke was superseded, and the command given to Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick. The new general quickly shewed great skill in military affairs, and not only drove the French out of Hanover, but pursued and reduced them to distress. It was not however by one single advantage, or by one single defeat, that the formidable power of France was to be broken. New re-inforcements, and new generals appeared; and though prince Ferdinand gained many victories and was evidently superior in skill to all his adversaries, yet not having the same advantage in point of numbers, he found it impracticable to drive them out of Germany, so that they maintained their ground in that country till the end of the war. It is difficult, however, to determine whether this might not have been accomplished thro' the consummate skill of that general, had the British general who commanded under him at the battle of Minden behaved properly, and attacked the enemy at that time with a true British courage. In other parts of the world, as the war was carried on mostly by sea, the French were perpetually unfortunate; their fleets were always defeated, their islands taken, and their commerce ruined. All their valuable settlements on the coast of Coromandel in the East Indies were lost; and the same thing happened in America, where Canada was conquered by the famous general Wolfe, who unluckily lost his life at the taking of Quebec, while at the same time the coast of France was infested by the English fleets. This bad success first induced the French court to apply for assistance from Spain; and afterwards, as this assistance proved useless, to sue for peace, which was obtained in 1763, when most of the British conquests were given up for the province of Canada in North-America. The succeeding transactions, to the begin-

ring of the present war, are of little moment; the only remarkable one being their conquest of Corsica, which was yielded to them by the republic of Genoa, and which was not accomplished without much expence and bloodshed. The most remarkable particulars respecting Britain shall be taken notice of when we come to treat of England.

Chief Towns.] Lille, in French Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the master-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garrisoned with above 10,000 regulars; and, for its magnificence and elegance, it is called little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambric, and camlets, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Dunkirk, which the French have been obliged to demolish, is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving Southward we come to the Ile of France, the capital of which, and the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been so often described, that it may appear superfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, in every respect, to all the capitals in the world, (not excepting even the number of its inhabitants,) which it by no means deserves. Many of the English have been imposed upon in this respect; and one reason is, the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the most populous parishes about London. Another mistake lyes in computing from births and marriages. For it is well known, the number of dissenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not register the births of their children, are amazing; and many of the poorer sort cannot afford the expence of such registration. Another peculiarity existing in London is, that most of the Londoners, who can afford the expence, when they find themselves consumptive, or otherwise indisposed, retire to the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris therefore, where the registers are more exact and accessible to the poor, and where the religion and police are more uniform and strict, is far more easily ascertained than that of London; and by the best accounts, it does not exceed 7 or 800,000, which is far short of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous parishes.

This city is divided into three parts; the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the town. The city is old Paris; the university and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are more shewy, and some of its streets, squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches, more superbly decorated with a profusion of paintings, tapestry, images, and statues; but notwithstanding its boasted police, it is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniences of life, and the solid enjoyments of society. Without entering into more minute disquisitions, Paris, it must be owned, is the paradise of splendor and dissipation. The tapestry of the Gobelines * is unequalled for beauty and

* One *Goblet*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever since;

and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itself; and the institution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England or elsewhere. The Tuilleries, the palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxemburgh, where a valuable collection of paintings are shewn, the royal palace, the king's library, the guild-hall, and the hospital for invalids, are superb to the highest degree. The city of Paris is said to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French noblesse at Paris, take up a great deal of room, with their court-yards and gardens; and so do their convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, and the houses very high, many of them seven stories. The houses are built of stone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedness, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half so large as the Thames at London; it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and is not furnished as the Thames, with vessels or boats of any sort: over it are many stone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The streets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur: though, in reality, there is more show than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of strangers, are mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and, in truth, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of strangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendancy over other nations is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the Gobelines, or manufacture of tapestry, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the French wines, and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, however, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanness of their streets, elegance of their houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which is said to be productive of the stone in the bladder; their small wines also disagree with strangers. Most of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a-day. These brick-floors, the stone-stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of stone, are, however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any material damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented, with tester and curtains; but bugs are here a most intolerable nuisance, which frequently oblige strangers to sleep on the floor during the excessive heat in Summer. Their shops are but poorly stored with goods; neither has their government made those salutary provisions that are in its power, and necessary for rendering the condition of the inferior

more; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.

rior ranks comfortable; but seemingly directs its whole attention to the conveniency and splendor of the great. The shopkeepers and tradesmen, are an indolent, loitering people, and seldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dress, of velvet cap, and silk night-gown, with Morocco slippers; but when they intend a visit, or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the resemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of people and those of the same rank in London. In Paris too, the wives pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery business of the shop, while the husbands loiter about, and talk of the great, of the fashions and diversions, the invincible force of their armies, and the splendor of the grand monarch. The Parisians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living, and to be intoxicated with liquor is reckoned infamous. Bread, and all manner of butcher's meat and poultry, are exceedingly good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the Summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and small wine. The Parisians make very little use of tea, but of coffee in abundance. The police of Paris is so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happen; and strangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, meet with the most polite treatment. The streets are patrolled at night by horse and foot, so judiciously stationed, that no offender can escape their vigilance. They likewise visit the publicans precisely at the hour of twelve at night, to see that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor is allowed to be sold after that time. The public roads in France are under the same excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom; but, for the same reasons, when robberies are committed they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country in Europe, Great Britain excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns, and villages; some of them, being scattered on the edges of lofty mountains rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Versailles, which stands about twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is properly a collection of buildings each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens, however, and water-works (which are supplied by means of prodigious engines across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distant) are astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St Germain en Laye, Meulun, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of a luxurious court; but some of them are in a shameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanliness.

Brest is a small, but very strong town, on Cameret Bay in the Atlantic Ocean, with a most spacious and fine fortified road and harbour,

bour, the best and safest in all the kingdom; yet its entrance is difficult, by reason of many rocks lying under water. At Brest is a court of admiralty, an academy for sea-affairs, docks and magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses, &c. insomuch, that it may now be termed the capital receptacle on the ocean for the navy royal of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a sea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy royal. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and, by means of a canal, ships pass from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour. Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a particular storehouse for each ship of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being separately laid up. Here are spacious workshops for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, locksmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk of stone is 320 toises in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular storehouses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

ITALY.





Marine Chart from London

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I T A L Y.

Situation. THIS country lyes on the Southern side of Europe.

Boundaries.] Is bounded on the North by the Alps and Switzerland, dividing Italy from Germany. On the South by the Mediterranean sea. On the East by the Gulph of Venice, and part of Germany. On the West by the Mediterranean and the river Var, which divides Italy from France.

Extent.] It extends from the latitude of thirty-eight degrees to forty-seven degrees N. reckoned by some at about 400 miles; and from the longitude of seven degrees to nineteen degrees East, and usually estimated at about 600 miles. But the position of Italy lying about S. E. by E. and N. W. by W. its mean length is about 700 miles, and the mean breadth about 180 miles. To which may be added the island of Sicily, of about 150 miles in length, and sixty miles in breadth, on a medium. Italy is usually considered under three great divisions; namely the upper, or Northern part, comprehending Lombardy, the Middle, and the Lower, or Southern part.

In the following table the positions are taken from the city of Rome.

Div.	Name.	Title.	Position.	Ch. towns.	Lat.	Long.
Northern	Savoy	Dukedom	N N W	Chamberry	45.40N	5.45E
	Piedmont	Principality	N W	Turin	44.50	7.16
	Montferat	Dutchy	N W	Casal	45.00	8.35
	Milanese	Dutchy	N N W	Milan	45.25	9.0
	Parmesan	Dutchy	N N W	Parma	44.45	11.0
	Modenese	Dutchy	N by W	Modena	44.45	11.20
	Mantua	Dutchy	N by W	Mantua	45.20	11.15
	Venice	Republic	N	Venice	45.40	13.0
	Genoa	Republic	N W	Genoa	44.30	9.3
Middle	Tuscany	Dukedom	N W	Florence	43.30	12.15
		Popedom.	Middle	Rome	41.45	13.0
	Lucca	Republic	N N W	Lucca	43.45	11.20
	St Marino	Republic	N	St Marino	44.0	13.20
Islands Sout.	Naples and Sicily	Kingdom	S W by W	Naples	41.0	15.0
	Sardinia	Kingdom	S	Palermo	38.3	13.0
	Sardinia		S	Cagliari	39.0	9.12
	Corfica		S	Baltia	42.20	9.40
	Malta		S	Valette	35.15	15.0

The King of SARDINIA possesses SAVOY, PIEDMONT, MONTSE-
RAT, the ISLAND of SARDINIA, and part of the MILANESE.

The Subdivisions in these territories are,

Subdivision.	Titles.	Chief towns.
Savoy	Proper	Chamberry, Montmelian
	County	Annacy
	County	Tonor, or Thonon
		Mouffriers
	Valley	St John de-Maurienne
		Bonneville.

	Subdivision.	Titles.	Chief towns.
Mont-ferat.	Montferat.	Duchy.	Casal, Alby, Aqui.
Milaneſe.	Tortoneſe. Alexandrin. Laumelin.		Tortona. Alexandrina. Laumello.
Genoa.	Oneglia.	Territory.	Oneglia.
Piedmont.	Piedmont. Vercell. Mafferan. Ivrea. Aſti. Suſao. Saluzzo. Vaudois. Nice. Tende. Aouſte.	Proper. Lordſhip. Principality. Marqu. County Marqu. Marqu. Vallies. Territory. County. County.	Turin, Pignerol, Carignan. Vercell. Mafferan. Ivrea. Aſti. Suſao. Saluzzo, Coni. Pragelas, or Cluſon. Nice. Tende. Aouſte.

The houſe of AUSTRIA poſſeſſes the MILANESE, the MANTUAN and TUSCANY.

The ſubdiviſions and chief towns in theſe territories are,

Milaneſe.	Milan. Paveſan. Navareſe. Comaſco. Lodeſan. Cremoneſe.	Proper.	Milan. Pavia. Navara. Como. Lodi. Cremona.
Tuſcany.	Florentina. Sieneſe. Piſan.		Florence. Sienna. Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino.
Mantuan.	Mantua.	Proper.	Mantua.

In Tuſcany is contained the republic of Lucca, and the principality of Maſſa Carara, ſubject to its own prince; alſo the coaſt del Preſidii, of which the capital is Orbitello, ſubject to the king of Naples.

The Duke of PARMA (of the houſe of BOURBON) is ſovereign of the Duchies of

Parma. Placentia. Guaſtala.	Chief towns.	Parma. Placentia. Guaſtala, Caſtiglione, Luzzara.
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The **GENOESE** territories run along the sea-coast, near 140 miles in length; but do not exceed twenty miles in breadth; including the two little territories of **MONACO** and **ONEGLIA**; the former subject to its own Prince, and the latter to the King of Sardinia.

The subdivisions of **GENOA**, with the chief towns, are,

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Ch. towns.
Genoa, Proper,	Genoa.	St Remo, Territ.	St Remo.
Savona, Territory,	Savona,	Ventimiglia, Territ.	Ventimiglia.
Vado, Territory,	Vado.	Monaco, Princip.	Monaco.
Noli, Territory,	Noli.	Rapallo, Territ.	Rapallo.
Final, Territory,	Final.	Lavigna,	Lavigna.
Albenga, Territory,	Albenga.	Spezia,	Spezia.
Oneglia to Sardinia,	Oneglia.		

The Duchy of **MODENA** has **MANTUA** on the North; the Republic of **LUCCA** on the South; the **PATRIARCHATE** on the East; and **GENOA** on the West. It is subject to its own Duke, and contains,

Duchies.	Chief towns.
Modena.	Modena.
Mirandola.	Mirandola.
Rhegio.	Rhegio, Borfello, Carpi.

The Republic of **VENICE** has the **ALPS** on the North, parting it from **GERMANY**; the **MANTUAN** and **PATRIARCHATE** on the South, the **GULPH** of **VENICE** on the East, and the **MILANESE** on the West.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Venice.	Venice.	Rovigno.	Rovigno.
Paduan.	Padua.	Trevegiano.	Treviso.
Veronese.	Verona.	Bellunese.	Belluno.
Bresciano.	Brescia.	Friuil.	Aquileia.
Cremaſco.	Crema.	Udineſe.	Udia.
Bergamaſco.	Bergamo.	Iſtria, partic.	Cabode Iſtria.
Vincentino.	Vincenza.		

Alſo thoſe iſlands in and near the Gulph of Venice, Cherſo, Oſero, Vegia, Arbe, Pago, Longa, Brazza, Leſſina, Curzola, Cephalonia, Corfu, Zant, La Praga.

And thoſe towns on the Dalmatian coaſt, to the Eaſt of the Adriatic Sea, Zara, Nona, Spalatto, Sebinico, and Segna, in Morlachia, on the ſame ſide of the Adriatic.

The **PATRIARCHATE**, or, Lands of the **POPE**, have the territories of **VENICE** on the North; thoſe of **NAPLES** and the **MEDITERRANEAN SEA** on the South; the **ADRIATIC SEA** on the Eaſt, and **TUSCANY** and the **MODENESE** on the Weſt.

U

Subdiviſions.

Subdivisions.	Ch. towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
St Peter's Campania Patrimony. of Rome.	Rome. Tivoli. Frescati. Ostia. Albano.	Ancona, Marqu.	{ Ancona. Loretto.
		Urbino, Duchy.	{ Urbino. Pesaro. Semigalia.
	Viterbo. Civita-Vecchia. Bracciano.	Romania.	{ Ravenna. Rimini.
	Castro. Orvieto.	Bolognese.	Bologna.
	Aquapendente.	Ferrarese.	{ Ferrara. Comachia.
Ombria, or Spoleto.	Spoleto. Narni. Terni. Perugia.	Republic of St Ma- rino.	{ St Marino.

The dominions of the KING of the TWO SICILIES lye in the South and S. E. parts of ITALY, having the POPEDEM to the North; the MEDITERRANEAN SEA on the South and West, and the Adriatic Sea on the East.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Subdivisions.	Ch. towns.
Lavoro.	Naples, Capua, Geta.	Ult. Calabria.	Rhegio.
Ultra, Princip.	Benevento.	Ult. Abruzzo.	Aquilla.
Ciria, Princip.	Salerno.	Citra Abruzzo.	Chieti.
Molise.	Bojano.	Capitinate, or,	Manfre-
Basilicate.	Cerenza.	Apula.	donia.
Citra Calabria.	Cosenza.	Barri.	Barri.
		Otranto.	{ Otranto. Brundisi. Tarenta.
Island of Sicily.	{ Val de Mazara. Palermo. Val de Demona. Messina. Val de Noto. Catania, Syracuse, Noto.		

Lipari Islands, North of Sicily, are,
Lipari, Strombulo, Rottè, Panaria, Elicusa.

Islands on the West coast of Italy, are,
Capri, Ischia, Ponza, Giglio, Elba, Capraria, Gorgona; and the
Island of Pianosa, subject to Tuscany.

Island of Corsica, subject to the French.
Chief towns, Bastia and Bonifacio.

Island of Malta, subject to the knights, Chief town, Valetta.
Manufactures.]

Mountains.] 1. The Alps on the North and West. 2. The Appenine, which run the whole length of Italy, from the N. W. to the S. E. 3. Vesuvius, a remarkable volcano near Naples.

Lakes.] 1. Maggior. 2. Lugano. 3. Como. 4. Isco. 5. Garda in the North. 6. Perugia, or Trasimene. 7. Bracciano. 8. Terni. And, 9. Celano, in the middle.

Rivers.] 1. The Po, which rises in Piedmont, and, running North, passes by Turin and Chivas; then turning East, runs through Montferat, the Milanese, and the territories of Venice, falling into the Adriatic, or gulph of Venice, by several channels, and receiving in its course the two Doria's, the Stura, Sessia, Tessino, Olona, Adda, Oglio, Mincio, on the North; and the Tanaro, Trebia, Taro, Secchia, and Parma on the South. 2. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and, running South, falls into the Mediterranean below Nice or Nizza. 3. The Adige, which rises in Tirol, and runs South by the city of Trent, and, turning East to Verona, falls into the gulph of Venice. 4. The Tagliaménta. 5. The Piava. And, 6. The Brenta. All which, rising in the Alps, run S. E. through the territories of Venice, and fall into the gulph of Venice. 7. The Arno, which rises in the Appenine mountains, runs West through Tuscany, passing by Florence, and falls into the Mediterranean below Pisa. 8. The Rubicon, the Southern boundary of the ancient Cisalpine Gaul, which rises in the Appenine, and running E. falls into the gulph of Venice, near Rimini. 9. The Tiber, which rises in the Appenine, and runs S. W. by Rome; falling into the Mediterranean sea, at Ostia, receives in its course the Chiana, Terni, and Tiverone. 10. The Volturno, which, rising in the Appenine, runs W. thro' the North part of the kingdom of Naples, and falls into the Mediterranean below Capua. 11. The Isere rises in the Alps, and runs through Savoy into the Rhone.

Seas, Gulphs, or Bays, Capes, Promontories, and Streights.] The seas of Italy are, the gulph of Venice, or the Adriatic sea; the seas of Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa. The bays or harbours of Nice, Villa-Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezia, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita-Vecchia, Gaieta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Istria, and Fiume; Capes Spartavento del Alice, Otrantò, and Ancona, and the Streight of Messina between Italy and Sicily.

In the Italian Islands.] The gulphs or bays of Fiorenza, Bastia, Talada, Porto Novo, Capes Corio, Bonifacio, and Ferro in Corsica, and the Streights of Bonifacio, Corsica, and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oristagni; Capes de Sardis, Cavallo, Monte Sancto, and Polo in Sardinia. The gulphs of Messina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuse, and Catania; Capes Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Passaro, and Alessio in Sicily; and, the bays of Porto Ferraio, and Porto Longone, in the Island of Elba.

Air.] The air of Italy is very different, according to the situations

tions of the several countries it is composed of: the Northern parts, which lye upon the Alps, are cold, and covered with snow in Winter: the hills of the Appenine also, which run almost the whole length of Italy, are cold. The countries on the North of the Appenine are temperate; those on the South are very warm. The Campania of Rome is unhealthful, and so is the Ferrarese, occasioned by bogs and stagnant waters. In other parts the air is generally pure and dry; and tho' Naples may be thought the hottest, from its Southern situation, yet being almost surrounded by the sea, it is continually refreshed by breezes from thence.

Soil, Produce, Manufactures, and Traffic.] The soil affords a great variety of wines, and the best oil in Europe; their tender plants, such as oranges, lemons, &c. on the North side of the Appenine, are covered in Winter; but on the South side they have no need of it. There is not such plenty of corn as in some other countries, but generally enough for the present inhabitants, who are not so numerous as in the time of the Romans, when the seat of the empire was fixed here. This country produces excellent silk in abundance, and their manufactures of gold and silver stuffs, brocades and velvets, are esteemed the best in Europe, which the British merchants bring chiefly from those noted ports of Genoa, Leghorn, and Venice:

Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs, some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeat, and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Iron and copper mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating these metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and allum, though they are now neglected; and curious crystals and corals are found on the coast of Corsica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or sea, and those of France and Germany, already mentioned.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, &c.] Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great measure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's subjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itself, by the best accounts, contains 300,000, and the Duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of those who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have arisen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. Probably the present inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and some other of the most beautiful parts of Italy, are at present in a manner desolate; but we are to consider that the modern Italians are in a great measure free from the unremitting wars, not to mention the transmigration of colonies,

colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and states of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; so that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we assign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but some calculations greatly exceed that number. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have such meaning in their looks, that they have greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. Their women are well shaped, and very amorous. The marriages, especially of the better sort, are of very little value in Italy. Every wife has her gallant or *cizibei*, with whom she keeps company, and sometimes cohabits with very little ceremony, without offence on either side. This practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice. With regard to the modes of life, the best quality of a modern Italian is sobriety, and contentment under the public government. With great taciturnity they discover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native customs, and seem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondness for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; so that an Italian gentleman or peasant can be luxurious at a very small expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain five descendents of the ancient Romans, yet the present inhabitants speak of themselves as successors to the conquerors of the world, and look upon the rest of mankind with contempt.

The dress of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the solemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dressed in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts; though they are as yet but despicable proficient in the sciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal music at a very dear rate, by emasculating their males when young, to which their mercenary parents agree without remorse.

The Italians, and the Venetians especially, have very little, or no notion of the impropriety of many customs that are considered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their sons, should throw themselves away by unsuitable marriages, or contract diseases by promiscuous amours, hire mistresses for them for a month, or a year, or some determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed, licensed trade. The Italian courtezans or *Bona Robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profession in all their cities. Masquerading, and gaming, horse-races without riders, and conversations or assemblies, are the chief diversions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, describing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians and their manner of living: "Give what scope you please to your fancy, says he, you will never imagine half the disagreeableness that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian nastiness, offer to an Englishman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can express the wretchedness of the other

other inns. No other beds than those of straw, with a mattress of straw, and next to that a dirty sheet, sprinkled with water, and consequently damp; for a covering, you have another sheet as coarse as the first, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedstead consists of four wooden forms or benches: an English peer and peeress must lye in this manner, unless they carry an upholsterer's shop with them. There are, by the bye, no such things as curtains; and in all their inns, the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been washed since it was first laid. One of the most indelicate customs here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies' beds, and would do every office of a maid-servant, if suffered. They never scour their pewter; their knives are of the same colour. In these inns they make one pay roundly, and serve up ten times as much meat as one can eat. The soup, like wash, with pieces of liver swimming in it; a plate full of brains, fried in the shape of fritters; a dish of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival,) boiled to rags, without any kind of sauce or herbage; another fowl, just killed, stewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roasted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are so stringy, that you may divide the breast into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then you get a little piece of mutton or veal, and, generally speaking, it is the only eatable morsel that falls in your way. The bread all the way is exceeding bad, and the butter so rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of your smell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, is the infinite number of knats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infest us by day and night."

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation with his pencil, and still stands at the head of the painting art. Michael Angelo Buonaroti, united in his own person, painting, sculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian, has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio, Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said of Correlli, and other Italians, in musick. At present, Italy cannot justly boast of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] A library might be filled with descriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; but the bounds of this work will not admit of mentioning even their general heads.

The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magnificence; that which was erected by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Coloseo, now stands at Rome. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. The ruins of other theatres and amphitheatres

amphitheatres are visible in other places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimius Severus, and Constantine the Great, are still standing, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, particularly that of the Pantheon, answer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A traveller forgets the devastations of the Northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the first naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians. The statue of the wolf giving suck to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the stroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original brass plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thousand other identical antiquities, some of them transmitted unhurt to the present times; not to mention medals, and the infinite variety of seals and engraved stones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire. The Appian, Flaminian, and Arminian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third fifty miles in length, are in many places still entire.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground; witness the cloacæ and catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above twenty years since a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Pæstum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing; for so indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new discovery to the learned. An infinite number of curiosities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, and sunk in an earthquake 1700 years ago.

With regard to modern curiosities, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itself contains 300 churches filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and sculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St Peter, at Rome, is the most astonishing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps existed; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultless. The house and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithstanding the ridiculous romance that composes its history.

The natural curiosities of Italy, tho' remarkable, are not so numerous as its artificial. The burning mounts of Vesuvius, near Naples, and Aetna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. Mount Aetna is sixty miles in circumference; and at the top there is a basin of sulphur six miles round, from whence sometimes issues rivers of melted minerals that run down into the sea. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people perished. Between the lakes Agnano and Puzzeli there is a valley called Solfatara, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the cliffs by subterranean fires. The grotto del Cana is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. The Tarrantula, an insect or spider, whose

whose poison is said to be removed only by music and dancing; tho' by some persons of very good credit, this is asserted to be entirely void of truth. Scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are common in Apulia.

Language.] The Italian is the old Latin, corrupted by the Goths and other Northern nations, which demolished the Roman empire. The Lord's prayer in this language runs thus: *Padre nostro che sei ne i cieli, sia santificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volontà sia fatta, si come in cielo così anche in terra; dacci oggi il nostro pane cotidiano; remittici i nostri debiti, si come noi ancora remettiamo a nostri debitori; e non induraci in tentazione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perchiocché tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in sempiterno. Amen.*

Religion.] The religion of the Italians is Roman-catholic. The inquisition here is little more than a sound; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to their worship. In the Introduction, we have given an account of the rise and establishment of popery in Italy, from whence it spread over all Europe; likewise of the causes and symptoms of its decline. The ecclesiastical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in describing it. The Cardinals, who are next in dignity to his Holiness, are seventy, but that number is seldom or never complete: they are appointed by the Pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian Cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then Pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the Pope regulates himself according to the nominations of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the Cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the Pope's reign by amassing what he can. When met in a consistory, the Cardinals pretend to controul the Pope, in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a Pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a scene where the Cardinals principally endeavour to display their parts, and where many transactions pass which hardly shew their inspiration from the Holy Ghost. During the election of a Pope in 1721, the animosities ran so high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the ink-standishes at each other. We shall here give an extract from the creed of Pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the Protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

"I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the same church.

"I do admit the holy scriptures in the same sense that the holy mother church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

"I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law,

law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the Catholic church in her solemn administration of the abovesaid sacraments.

"I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent * concerning original sin and justification.

"I do also profess, that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist there is truly, really, and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity of our Lord Jesus Christ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood; which conversion the Catholic church calls Transubstantiation.

"I confess, that under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

"I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

"I do likewise believe, that the saints reigning together with Christ are to be worshipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

"I do most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them †.

"I do likewise affirm, that the power of indulgence was left by Christ

* A convocation of Roman catholic divines, who assembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the Pope, anno 1546, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to suppress what they were pleased to term the rising heresies in the church.

† An English traveller speaking of a religious procession some years ago at Florence, in Italy, describes it as follows: I had occasion, says he, to see a procession, where all the nobles of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniversary of a charitable institution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned off every year. About two hundred of these virgins walked in procession, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in sackcloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, hawling and bellowing the litanies; but the greatest object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, standing within a gilt frame, dressed in a gold stuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of false jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the fashion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the cross; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the shoulders of three or four lusty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to Christian people †.

“ I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apostolical Roman church, to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I do promise and swear true obedience to the Bishop of Rome, the successor of St Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

“ I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things, which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the sacred canons and œcumenical councils, and especially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected

† A long list of indulgences, or fees of the Pope's chancery, may be seen in a book printed 150 years ago, by authority of the then Pope. It has been translated into English, under the title of *Rome a great custom-house for sin*; from which we shall give a few extracts :

A B S O L U T I O N S.

For him that stole holy or consecrated things out of a holy place, 10s. 6d.

For him who lyes with a woman in the church, 9s.

For a layman for *murdering* a layman, 7s. 6d.

For him that *killeth* his father, mother, wife, or sister, 10s. 6d.

For laying violent hands on a *clergyman*, so it be without effusion of blood, 10s. 6d.

For a priest that keeps a concubine; as also his dispensation for being irregular, 10s. 6d.

For him that lyeth with his *own mother, sister, or godmother*, 7s. 6d.

For him that *burns* his neighbour's house, 12s.

For him that forgeth the Pope's hand, 1l. 7s.

For him that forgeth letters apostolical, 1l. 7s.

For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 1l. 6s.

For a king for going to the holy sepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

D I S P E N S A T I O N S.

For a bastard to enter all holy orders, 18s.

For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have Christian burial, 1l. 7s. 6d.

L I C E N C E S.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to visit the apostolic churches, 18s.

To eat flesh and white meats in Lent, and other fasting days, 10s. 6d.

That a king or queen shall enjoy such indulgences as if they went to Rome, 15l.

For a queen to adopt a child, 300l.

To marry in times prohibited, 1l. 3s.

To eat flesh in times prohibited, 1l. 4s.

Not to be tied to fasting days, 1l. 4s.

For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken sanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

F A C U L T I E S.

To absolve all delinquents, 3l.

To dispense with irregularities, 3l.

ed and anathematized by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematize."

GOLD COINS IN ITALY.

l. s. d.

The Sequin, or Chequin, of Venice	0	9	7
The old Italian Pistole	0	16	7
Double Ducat of Genoa, Venice, and Florence	0	18	7
Single Ducats of the same places	0	9	3½

SILVER COINS IN ITALY.

l. s. d.

The old Ducat of Venice	0	3	4
The new Ducat	0	1	8
The Ducat of Naples	0	3	4
The Tarin	0	0	8
The Carlin, or tenth of a Ducat	0	0	4
The Teston of Rome, or three Julioes	0	1	6
The Ducat of Florence, or Leghorn	0	5	4

Arms. The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follows: The Pope, or sovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his escutcheon gules, consisting of a long headcape or, surmounted with a cross, pearly and garnished with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St Peter, placed in Saltier. The arms of Tuscany or, five roundles gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-luces or. Those of Venice, azure, a lion winged, sejant or, holding, under one of his paws, a book covered argent. Lastly, those of Genoa argent, a cross gules, with a crown closed for the island of Corsica; and for supporters, two griffins or.

States of Italy, Constitution, } The Italian States are not like the
and chief Cities. } Republics of Holland, Switzerland,
 or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to
 which every member is accountable; for every Italian State has distinct forms of government, trade, and interests.

The Duke of SAVOY, or, as he is usually stiled, King of SARADINIA, taking his royal title from that island, is now a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus; or Keeper, against the French. He has an order of knighthood, which is called the Annunciade, instituted by the first Duke of Savoy, to commemorate his brave defence of Rhodes against the Infidels.

His Sardinian majesty's capital, Turin, is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to seek their bread all over the world. They are esteemed a simple but very honest people. The king is so absolute, that his revenues consist of what he pleases to lay upon his subjects. His ordinary income, besides his own family provinces, cannot be less than 500,000*l.* sterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. In time of war, when assisted by foreign subsidies, he can bring to the field 40,000

men. By his situation and neighbourhood, he is a natural ally to Britain, for the preservation of the balance of power in Europe.

The MILANESE, belonging to the house of Austria, formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almost incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very strong, and furnished with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taste. The revenue of the Duchy is upwards of 300,000*l.* annually, which is supposed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports, so that its revenue, unless the court of Vienna should pursue some other system of improvement, cannot be much bettered.

The Republic of GENOA is vastly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a most superb city. The inhabitants of distinction dress in black, in a plain, if not in an uncouth manner, perhaps to save expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants, (though some writers greatly diminish that number,) among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six galleys, and about 600 soldiers. In the year 1746, it was bombarded, and obliged to capitulate to a British fleet under Admiral Byng, the father of him who was shot for misbehaviour at Minorca. The chief safety of this republic consists in the jealousy of other European powers, because to any one of them it would be a most valuable acquisition. The common people are wretched beyond expression. Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated, but the soil in general is bad. The government of Genoa is purely aristocratical, or entirely vested in the nobility.

VENICE is one of the most celebrated Republics in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. It is composed of several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city is seated on seventy-two islands on the North end of the Adriatic sea, and is separated from the continent by a lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to navigate, which forms its principal strength. Venice preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every respect much degenerated. They seem to have lost their ancient taste for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. They have, however, lately had some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and seem to be disposed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the constitution of the Republic, to which it is said they owe their independency, it is kept a mystery to all but the members, and even of them few know it perfectly. All we know for certain is, that, like Genoa, the government is aristocratic, and that the nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the council. These elect a doge, or chief magistrate, in a peculiar

peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and silver balls. The doge is invested with emblems of supreme authority, but has very little power, and is shut up in the city as a prisoner. The government and laws are managed by five different councils of the nobles.

As every Venetian of a noble family is himself noble, great numbers of them go about the streets begging, and generally present a silver or tin box, to strangers, to receive their alms. All the orders are dressed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps, which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a-year, by dropping into it a ring from his bucentaur, or state-barge, attended by those of all the nobility, is the most superb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to the lord mayor's shew at London. The inhabitants of Venice are said to amount to 200,000. Over the several canals of the city, are laid near 500 bridges, the greatest part of which are stone. The Venetians still have some manufactures in scarlet cloath, gold and silver stuffs, and above all fine looking-glasses, all which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners; that of the state annually is said to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the state and the pay of the army, which in time of peace consists of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general,) and 10,000 militia. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolences of the piratical states of Barbary, and they have among them several orders of knighthood, the chief of which are those of the golden star, so called from its badge, which is conferred only on the first quality; and the military order of St Mark, the badge of which is a medal of that apostle. All religions, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting Protestants, are tolerated in this city. The Venetians live in the perpetual extremes of the most infamous debaucheries, or the most ridiculous devotion. Priests and nuns abandon themselves to the former, during the carnival, which is chiefly held in St Mark's palace, where sometimes 15,000 people assemble.

The principal city of TUSCANY is Florence, which is now possessed by a younger branch of the house of Austria, and is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants, and in every respect is reckoned, after Rome, the second city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal. The inscription on its base mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and surrounded by other master-pieces of sculpture. Every corner of this beautiful city, which stands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see, and a university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their *Accademia della Crusca*: and several other academies are now established at Florence. Tho' they affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in
wine

wine, which they sell from their cellar-windows, and sometimes they even hang out a broken flask, as a sign where it may be bought. They deal, besides wine and fruits, in gold and silver stuffs. A great reformation has been introduced, both into the government, and manufactures, which has been attended with considerable benefit to the finances. It is thought that the great Duchy of Tuscany could bring into the field 30,000 fighting men, and that its present revenues are above 500,000*l.* a-year. The other principle towns of Tuscany, are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the first and last are much decayed, but Leghorn is still a town of some consequence, built after the modern manner, is well fortified, and has a citadel, and the ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, of whom one half are said to be Jews, who carry on the principal part of the commerce. All kinds of religion are tolerated here.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, which is a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a most delightful plain, are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that tho' they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000*l.* sterling. The capital is also called Lucca, which contains above 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, especially olives. This Republic is under the protection of the house of Austria, but the inhabitants are very jealous of the power of their Tuscan neighbours.

The Republic of St MARINO is a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminencies at the bottom; and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a Republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the Pope, and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution.

The Duchy and city of PARMA, together with the Duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, form one of the most flourishing states in Italy. The soil of Parma and Placentia is fertile, and produces the richest fruits and pasturages. Considerable manufactures of silk are also carried on here. It is the seat of a bishop's see, and an university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The present Duke of Parma, is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to Don Philip the king of Spain's younger brother. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings, but his Catholic Majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The Duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy, and it is said that his revenues exceed 100,000*l.* sterling a-year; but this is probably exaggerated. The city of Parma is said to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich Duchy, which brought into its own Dukes 500,000 crowns a-year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milanese, in possession of the house of Austria.

Austria. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country.

The Duchy of **MODENA** (formerly *Mutina*) is still governed by its own Duke the head of the house of *Este*, from whom the family of *Brunswick* is descended. The Duke is absolute within his own dominions, but is under the protection of the house of *Austria*, and a vassal of the empire. His dominions, however, are far from being flourishing, though very improveable, as the soil is good, they having been alternately wasted by the belligerent powers in Italy.

The **ECCLESIASTICAL STATE**, which contains *Rome*, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of Popish tyranny, superstition, and oppression, are here seen in the highest perfection. Those spots, which under the masters of the world were enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious pestilential marshes and quagmires; and the *Campagna di Roma*, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords at present a miserable subsistence to about 500. Notwithstanding this, the Pope is a considerable temporal prince, and some suppose that his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling, though some authors calculate them to be much higher. The sum of a million sterling, however, is too high a revenue to arise from his territorial possessions; his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that sum, is now diminished by the suppression of the order of the *Jesuits*, from whom he drew vast supplies, and the measures taken by the popish powers for preventing the great ecclesiastical issues of money to *Rome*. According to the best and latest accounts, the taxes upon the provisions and lodgings furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form now the greatest part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened within these twenty years past, there is reason to believe that the Pope's territories will be reduced to what limits the houses of *Austria* and *Bourbon* shall please to prescribe. Some late Popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The discouragement of industry and agriculture seems to be interwoven in the constitution of the papal government, which is vested in proud, lazy ecclesiastics. Their indolence, and the fanaticism of their worship, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and imposing upon strangers, to industry and agriculture, especially as they must hold their properties by the precarious tenure of the will of their superiors. In short, the inhabitants of many parts of the Ecclesiastical State must perish through their sloth, did not the fertility of their soil spontaneously afford them subsistence. Here, however, we must make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and sloth of the lower ranks do not take their rise from their natural dispositions.

This observation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and costly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repository of taste and magnificence. This passion disabled them from laying

out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the industry, or relieving the wants of their subjects, and its miserable effects are seen in many parts of Italy. The splendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions are inexpressible, and partly account for the misery of the subjects. This censure, however, admits of some exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vast number of gardens and vineyards. It stands upon the Tyber, an inconsiderable river, when compared to the Thames, and navigated by small boats, barges, and lighters. The castle of St Angelo, though its chief fortrels, would be found to be a place of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city, standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. The inhabitants of Rome in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we consider that the spirit of travelling is much increased since that time, we cannot reasonably suppose them to be diminished at present.

Like other princes, the Pope has his guards, or *sbirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his Holiness. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice-legates. He monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. The late Pope Clement XIV. wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but those of prayers and supplications.

Next to Rome, BOLOGNA, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the Ecclesiastical State, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate a latere, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably, than the other subjects of the Pope; and perhaps their distance from Rome, which is 165 miles North-West, has contributed to their ease. The rest of the Ecclesiastical State contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state, but they are at present little better than desolate, though here and there, a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is supported by the superstition of the neighbouring peasants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO, (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael,) ANCONA, and many other states, and cities, illustrious in former times, are now to be seen only in their ruins and ancient history. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obscure spot, never thought or heard of, in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as, that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this

house,

house, from being carried to other places, and exposed as relics to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the Divine Infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver balustrade, which has a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is loaded; and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman catholic princes Loretto is indebted for this mass of treasure.

The King of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies, (the name of Sicily being common to both) is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Grecia, and the island of Sicily. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the North-East, where Naples terminates on the Ecclesiastical State. The air is hot, and its soil fruitful. The city of Naples, its capital, is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the burning mountain Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction; and the soil being pestered with insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the Ecclesiastics, the Protestants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan Majesty presents to his Holiness, every year, a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in Naples. The present revenues of that king amount to 750,000*l.* sterling a-year, but it is more than probable, that, by the new established police pursued by the princes of the house of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan Majesty's annual income will considerably exceed a million sterling. He has a numerous but poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquises, and other high-sounding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains, at least, 300,000 inhabitants.

The Island of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, still continues to supply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity, but its cultivation, and consequently its fertility, is greatly diminished. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the same with those of Italy. Palermo, its capital, is said to contain 120,000 inhabitants, and both that city and Messina, carry on a brisk trade. The climate is extremely hot; and the celebrated Volcano of mount *Ætna* hath sometimes occasioned great devastations by its eruptions. This mountain is so high that its top is always covered with snow, which is carried away in great quantities by the inhabitants for the purpose of cooling their liquors; and without this article they say their country would be uninhabitable.

The Island of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the Duke of
Y Savoy,

Savoy, lyes about 150 miles West of Leghorn. Its capital, Cagliari, is an university, an archbithopric, and the seat of the viceroy. It is thought that his Sardinian Majesty's revenues, from this island, do not exceed 5000*l.* sterling a-year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad from its marshes and morasses. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the Emperor, and in 1719 to the house of Savoy.

The Island *of *CORSICA* lyes opposite to the Genoese continent, between the gulph of Genoa, and the Island of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble stand which the inhabitants made some years ago under General Paoli, for their liberty, against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards against the French arms, than from any advantages they enjoy from nature or situation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chefnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied, both by the sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to 120,000. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength, but the other towns of the island, that were in possession of the male-contents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

CAPRI, formerly *CAPREA*, remarkable in Roman history for being the retreat of the Emperor Tiberius in his old age, lies about three Italian miles from the continent. It is four miles long from East to West, and one broad from South to North. On the Western part the shore is high, rocky, and inaccessible; this part of the island indeed being almost one continued rock, though the largest town on the island, called *Ano Carpi*, is situated here. The Eastern part also abounds with precipices; though less considerable than those on the West; but between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a delightful spot of ground, covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields.

ISCHIA, and some other Islands on the Italian coast, have nothing to distinguish them, but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being pleasant Summer-retreats for their proprietors.

We shall here mention the Isle of *MALTA*, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called *Melita*, and is situated in fifteen deg. E. long. and forty-five deg. N. lat. sixty miles South of Cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, twenty miles long, and twelve broad. Its air is clear, but excessively hot; the whole island seems to be a white rock covered with a thin surface of earth, which is, however, amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden-stuff of all kinds. This island, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St John of Jerusalem in 1530, by the Emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, and they are now known by the distinction of *the knights of Malta*. They are under vows of celibacy and chastity, but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have considerable possessions in the Roman catholic countries on the continent, and are under

der the government of a grand master, who is elected for life. They are considered as the bulwark of Christendom against the Turks on that side. They wear crosses of a particular form, and they never have degenerated from the military glory of their predecessors. They are generally of noble families, and are ranked according to their nations. The whole island is so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable by the Infidels.

History.] Italy was probably first peopled from Greece. About 250 years before Christ it was totally subdued by the Romans, who kept possession of it for upwards of 700 years. In the year 476 the Romans were subdued by the Heruli, and these soon after by the Goths. The Goths were, in their turn, expelled by the Romans; the Romans by the Lombards, and the Lombards by Charlemagne. The successors of Charlemagne for some time possessed the sovereignty of Italy, but their civil wars at home soon gave an opportunity to their governors, to either assume or purchase the sovereignty of the several states over which they presided.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the courts of Mantienne, the ancestors of his present Sardinian Majesty, whose father became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718.

The Milanese, the fairest portion in Italy, went through several hands; but fell at last into the hands of the Emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his son Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the Imperialists. These were dispossessed of it in 1743; but by the Emperor's cession of Naples and Sicily, to the present king of Spain, it returned to the house of Austria, who governs it by a viceroy.

The Duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the house of Austria, which now possesses it, the last Duke dying without male-issue; but Guastella was separated from it in 1748, and made part of the Duchy of Parma.

The first Duke of Parma was natural son to Pope Paul III. the Duchy having been annexed to the Holy See in 1545, by Pope Julius II. The descendants of the house of Farnese terminated in the late Queen Dowager of Spain, whose son, his present Catholic Majesty, obtained that Duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the Duchy of Placentia.

The Venetians were formerly the most formidable maritime power in Europe, but were more than once brought to the brink of destruction, by the confederacies formed against them among the other powers of Europe, especially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, though they were as often saved by the disunion of the confederates. The discovery of a passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it lost them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their most valuable possessions on the continent, and late as the year 1715 they lost the Morea.

The Genoese, for some time, disputed the empire of the Mediterranean sea with the Venetians, but were seldom or never able to

maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and sometimes subjected by the French and Imperialists. Their doge, or first magistrate, is crowned King of Corsica, though it does not clearly appear by what title; and not being able to enforce their claim by the sword, they sold it to the French, who subdued the inhabitants after a brave resistance. At present the Genoese are possessed of revenue, barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state.

The great Duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies, to the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the Pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the Emperor's interest, took place. The Popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany, to put themselves under the protection of the church, but the Florentines, in a short time, formed themselves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. At last the family of Medici found means to subject their country-men, and, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was deservedly called the father of his country, being in the secret, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East-India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power, and Pope Pius V. gave one of his descendants, Cosmo, (the great patron of the arts,) the title of Great Duke of Tuscany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaston de Medicis in 1737, without issue. The great Duchy was then claimed by the Emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his son-in-law, the Duke of Lorraine, and late Emperor, in lieu of the Duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his second son, brother to the present Emperor, is now Grand Duke, and Tuscany assumes a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade, and several ships of very considerable force are now stationed on the Tuscan coasts to prevent the depredations of the Infidels.

No country has undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconstancy of the natives. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and, by their connections with the Greeks, established there, while the rest of Europe was plunged in monkish ignorance, a most respectable monarchy, flourishing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the Popes being then all powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the succession of Tancred's line, by which Naples and Sicily at last came into the possession of the French; and the house of Anjou, with some interruptions, and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman. His success was so surprising, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish the oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people.

Before

Before these could be re-established perfectly, he turned delirious, thro' his continual agitations of body and mind, and was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1706, when the Archduke Charles, afterwards Emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples, and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies; this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effusion of blood was stopt by a peace between France and the Emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples.

Upon his accession to the crown of Spain in 1759, it being found by the inspection of physicians, and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who lately married an Archduchess of Austria.

The history of the Papacy is connected with that of Christendom itself. The most solid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous Pope Gregory VII. (who, before his accession in 1073, was so well known by the name of Hildebrand.) The ignorance of the laity, and some other causes, contributed to the aggrandisement of the papacy, previous to the reformation. Even since that æra, the state of Europe has been such, that the Popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes, who seem now recovered from their religious delusions.

The papal power is evidently at a low ebb. The order of Jesuits, who are not improperly called its Janissaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and at last totally annihilated by the Pope himself. The Pope is indeed treated by Roman Catholic princes, with very little more ceremony than is due to him as a bishop of Rome, and possessed of a temporal principality.

S W I T Z E R L A N D,

Formerly HELVETIA.

Situation and Extent. **B**ETWEEN the latitudes of forty-five and forty-eight degrees North; about 100 miles on a medium in breadth; and between the longitudes of six and eleven degrees East, about 260 miles in length.

Boundaries.]

Boundaries.] Bounded on the North by Alsace and Swabia in Germany. On the East by the Lakes of Constance, Tyrol, and Trent. On the South by Italy. And on the West by France.

Divided into thirteen Cantons, viz.

Cantons.	Rel.	Ch. towns.	Cantons.	Rel.	Chief T.
Bearn,	West	Prot. Bearn.	Appenzel, E.	Prot.	Appenzel.
Friburg,	West	Pop. Friburg.	Zug. Mid.	Pop.	Zug.
Basil,	West	Prot. Basil.	Swiss, Mid.	Pop.	Swiss.
Lucerne,	West	Pop. Lucerne.	Glaris, Mid.	Prot.	Glaris.
Soloturn,	West	Pop. Soleure.	Uri, Mid.	Pop.	Altorf.
Schaffhausen, E.	Prot.	Schaffhausen.	Underwald.	Pop.	Stantz.
Zurick,	East	Prot. Zurick.			

ALLIES OF THE SWITZERS.

	Chief T.	Ch. towns.
Grison confed- try, antient. Rhetia. S. E. of Switzer- land. East.	Grison Leagues	Coire
	Chiavenna	Chiavenna
	Valtelline	Tiranta
	Bormio	Bormio
	St Gall, Repub.	Neufchattel
	St Gall, Abbey	Geneva W. Geneva
	Tockenburgh	Mulhausen N. Mulhausen

SUBJECTS OF THE SWITZERS.

	Chief T.	Ch. towns.
Saragans, County,	Saragans.	Lugano, Bailiage, Lugano, S. E.
Turgow, Count. N. E.	Turgow.	Lucarno, Bailiage, Lucarno, S. E.
Rotweil, County,	Rotweil.	Bellents, Bailiage, Bellents.

The towns of Baden, Bremgarten, Melleagen, Raperfwell, and Frawenfield, on the North.

Air, Soil, Seasons, and Water.] This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, the frosts are consequently severe in Winter, and the hills covered with snow, sometimes all the year long. In Summer, the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, when well cultivated, which is generally the case. The country is subject to rains and tempests, for which reason public granaries are every where erected to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a pleasing effect.

Rivers and Lakes.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which rises in

the mountains of this country, the Aar, the Rufs, the Inn, the Rhone, the Thur, and the Oglios. The lakes in this country are computed to be about thirty, there being scarce a mountain without one on the top of it. The chief are thofe of Geneva, Conftance, Thun, Lucern, Zurich, Neufchattel, and Biende.

Metals and Minerals.] The mountains contain mines of iron, chryftal, virgin-fulphur, and fprings of mineral waters.

Vegetable and Animal Productions.] Sheep and cattle are the chief animal productions of this country; corn and wood, and fome wine, with pot-herbs of almoft every kind, are likewise found here. The produce, however, of all thofe articles, is no more than fufficient for the inhabitants, who are too far removed from water-carriage to be profited by the ftately timber that grows in their woods. They have vaft plenty of game, fifh, and fowl.

Manufactures and Traffic.] Their manufactures and traffic are very inconfiderable, and confequently they are very poor; and for that reason prohibit all lace and jewels, and are extremely frugal. They lay up magazines of corn in every province almoft, againft a time of fcarcity. There is a confiderable linen manufacture lately eftablifhed in the North-Eaft of Switzerland, near the abbey of St Gall: but it is probable that they may foon have fome trade, as the manufacturing of filks and wool have lately been taken up in fome places; and efpecially as an academy was instituted in the year 1760, called the *Oeconomic Society of Berne*, eftablifhed for the purpofes of agriculture and commerce; of which fociety there have been publifhed feveral volumes of their memoirs.

*Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, } According to the beft accounts,
and Diversions. }* the thirteen cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induftrious people, remarkable for their fidelity and attachment to the caufe they undertake. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. All the cantons are regimented in a manner that contributes equally to the fafety and profit of the inhabitants, who fupply foreign powers with excellent foldiers. They are fo jealous of their liberties, that they difcourage foreigners from fettling among them. Their nobility and gentry difdain the profeflion of trade and manufactures. It is faid, that in many places of Switzerland, the inhabitants, efpecially thofe towards France, begin to degenerate from the ancient fimplicity of their manners and drefs. The customs and diversions are of the warlike and active kind, and the magiftrates of moft of the cantons, impofe fines upon plays, gaming, and even dancing, excepting at marriages.

Religion.] Though all the Swifs cantons form but one political Republic, yet they are not united in religion. Thofe differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which feem now to have fubfided. Zuing, commonly called Zuinglius, was the apoftle of Proteftantifm in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and

and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few speculative points; so that Calvinism may be said to be the religion of the Protestant Swisſes.

Language.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moſt common is German. The Swiſſes, who border upon France, ſpeak a baſtard French, as thoſe near Italy do a corrupted Latin, or Italian.

Learning, and learned Men.] Calvin, a Frenchman, whoſe name is ſo well known in all Proteſtant countries, inſtituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high eſteem by the moſt learned of that country. M. Rouſſeau too, whoſe works the preſent age have received with ſo much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva.

Universities.] The univerſity of Baſil which was founded in 1459, and contains a noble library, ſome valuable manuſcripts, an excellent collection of medals, and has a curious phyſic-garden. The other univerſities, or, as they are at preſent only called, colleges, are thoſe of Bern, Lauſanne, and Zürich.

Government.] The general diet, which repreſents the Helvetic body, conſiſts of two deputies from each canton; beſides which, the Abbot of St Gall, and the cities of St Gall and of Bienne, ſend deputies as allies; and a general diet is uſually held at Baden on the feaſt of St John the Baptiſt annually, which ſeldom laſts longer than a month.

Beſides the general diets, their differences in religion have, ſince the reformation, occaſioned partial diets: the mutual confidence between the cantons ſeems, in ſome meaſure, loſt, thro' the zeal of each party for their particular opinions. This enters, more or leſs, into all their public actions; and though their general diets are ſtill continued to regulate the affairs of their common bailiages, all other matters of importance are treated of at particular diets of the reſpective religions; that of the Proteſtants being held at Arraw, and that of the Roman catholics at Lucern; which, being the moſt potent catholic canton, acts as their head; and that of Zurich does as head of the Proteſtants. Theſe diets are ſummoned whenever either of the parties pleaſe: the thirteen cantons do not make one commonwealth, but are ſo many independent ſtates, united together by ſtrict alliances for their mutual defence.

The government of ſome of the cantons is ariſtocratical, and in others democratical. The ſeveral ariſtocratical cantons are thoſe of Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Baſil, Friburg, Soleur, and Scaff-hauſen; the other fix are democratical.

Arms.] The arms of Geneva are or, a croſs azure, and every town almoſt has its particular arms, which this epitome will not admit of enumerating.

Forces.] The Switzers let out their troops for hire, to ſerve any cauſe. They furniſh nations that are enemies with ſeparate bodies, whereby it comes to paſs, that the neareſt relations, father and ſon,
brother

brother and brother, are frequently engaged, it is said, against each other, and beat out one another's brains, as it were in sport, when they have no manner of concern in this quarrel. But this, say some, is a groundless charge: For, 1. They never grant their troops to any prince or state, but by virtue of some preceding alliance. 2. They grant troops only for the defence of the nation they are given to, and not to act offensively; so that the Swiss troops, in the French service, are never suffered to invade the empire, or Holland; nor, on the contrary, the Swiss, who are in the service of those two powers, to invade France. And, 3. The Sovereign never receives any subsidy or perquisite from the prince or state to whom their troops are granted, contenting themselves with procuring a beneficial service to their subjects, without reserving any profit to themselves. But what is offered on this subject ought to be restrained chiefly to the Protestant cantons; for it is acknowledged that the conduct of the Catholic cantons, and especially those called the petty ones, have too often given occasion for drawing reproaches on the whole nation, from those who do not distinguish between one and the other: so that it seems the charge is true in part, though not universally.

Standing forces have ever been thought inconsistent with the welfare of these republics, since their institution; but there is no where in Europe a better regulated militia; every male, from sixteen to sixty, is enrolled, and about one third of them regimented; and, when it is necessary, every regimented person, upon the beat of a drum, repairs to the house of his officer, properly accoutred for action, with arms which are in their own keeping: their military consisting of between thirteen and fourteen thousand men.

Revenues.] It is computed that the revenues of Bern, the largest canton, amount to 300,000 crowns a-year, and that of Zurich, to 150,000; of which two thirds are expended in the charges of the government, and the rest laid up in the treasury. The revenues of the other cantons are much less, but they all lay up something in bank; and from this bank large sums are laid out in the public funds. It is imagined they have near half a million sterling in the English funds.

Taxes.] Their revenues arise, 1. From the profits of the demesne lands, which belong to the state. 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country. 3. A certain tax upon lands, which are not the property of the gentry, called in French, *Censés Foncières*. 4. Customs and duties on merchandize. And, 5. The revenues arising from the sale of salt. From the last they raise the greatest sums, for the states alone retail it to the subjects, and impose what price they please. There is another casual tax arising from the sale of all estates; the Sovereign being entitled to a sixth part of the value upon every alienation.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] Mr Addison relates, that at Lausanne he viewed the wall of the cathedral church, which was opened by one earthquake, and closed some years afterwards by another.

About five miles from Nyon, are the ruins of Cæsar's wall, which
Z extended

extended eighteen miles in length, viz. from mount Jura, to the banks of the lake of Geneva, as Caesar has described it in the first book of his commentaries.

The situation of Friburg, the capital of that canton, is so irregular, among rocks and precipices, that they are forced to climb up to several parts of it by stair-cases of a prodigious ascent. The college of Jesuits here, is said to be the finest in Switzerland, from whence are several beautiful prospects. And they have a collection of pictures representing most of the fathers of their order, among whom are some natives of England, by us styled rebels, and by them martyrs. The inscription under Henry Gurnet relates, That when the heretics could not prevail on him, either by force or promises, to change his religion, they hanged and quartered him. Two leagues from Friburg there is a little hermitage, esteemed one of the greatest curiosities in Switzerland. It lyes in the prettiest solitude imaginable; among woods and rocks, which, at first view, incline one to be serious. The hermit, who was living in the year 1707, had lived here five-and-twenty years, and with his own hands wrought out of the rock a pretty chapel, a sacristy, a chamber, kitchen, cellar, and other conveniencies. His chimney is carried up through the whole rock, notwithstanding the rooms lye very deep; and has cut the side of the rock into a level for a garden, to which he brought the earth he found in the neighbouring parts, and has made such a spot of ground of it, as furnishes out a kind of luxury for an hermit; and, as he observed the drops of water distilling from several parts of the rock, by following the veins of them, he made himself two or three fountains in the bowels of the mountains, which served his table, and watered his little garden.

The public walks by the great church at Bern are worth the viewing: they are raised extremely high; and, that their weight might not break down the walls and pilasters that surround them, they are built upon arches and vaults. These walks afford the noblest summer prospects in the world; for here you have a full view of a huge range of mountains, that lye in the country of the Grisons, and are covered with snow. They are about fourscore miles distance from Bern; but their height and colour make them seem much nearer. The cathedral stands on one side of these walks, and is esteemed the most magnificent Protestant church in Europe, out of England.

In the Alps, the difference of season in one and the same climate is very remarkable; for travellers may in one day meet with Winter on the tops of the mountains, the Spring on the lower part of them, with pleasant green pasture; and hay-time and harvest at the foot of the mountains and in the vallies.

Some of their animals, such as bears, hares, and other game, are white in Winter. And, 1. Here are the Pyrites *Ærei*, of a globular form, being a sort of marcasites, found on the tops of the Alps; and sometimes washed down by brooks. They resemble our English rust balls; and, when broke, are full of streaks from the circumference to the center, which shine like gold and silver.

2. Their false diamonds are pieces of the purest chrystal, with great variety of angles, and most of them have short small columns in the middle.

3. Stones resembling pieces of money, marked with strokes, convex on both sides, and look like glass; the surface of which appears as covered all over with pieces of coin.

4. Black shining chrystal stones like hexagon pyramids, some of which contain black antimony chrystalized. Veins of silver, copper, lead, talc, and selenites of chrystal, with spots, which increase and decrease with the moon.

5. Plenty of black marble with white veins and spots, symptoms of gold black pyrites, veins of silver vitriol, black fossil stone.

6. A well which ebbs and flows once a-day; and another which flows three months, and is dry the other three.

The Glaceries, or Ice Vallies, are an uncommon curiosity. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of Jesuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds,

Coin.] Those of Germany, France, and Italy, are current here.

REVOLUTIONS AND PRESENT CONSTITUTION.

THE Switzers, anciently called Helvetii, were of Gaulish extraction, and were subdued by Julius Cæsar, who added it to the province of Gaul. They were afterwards part of the kingdom of Burgundy; then subject to France, and then to the German empire, under which they were cruelly oppressed. About the year 1300, the Emperor Albert appointed them an Austrian governor, one *Griesler*, who, in the wantonness of daring tyranny, ordered the natives to reverence his hat set upon a pole; which being with a proper spirit refused by one *WILLIAM TELL*, a noted marksman with a cross-bow, he was sentenced to be hanged, if he did not, at a certain distance, shoot an apple from the head of his own son: *TELL* hit the apple with one of two short arrows, or bolts, which he had provided; and, being asked what the other was intended for, he boldly answered, "For thy heart, O tyrant! had I killed my son." He was ordered to prison, but escaped, and, with some others, brought about a revolution, which produced the several Independent States of the Helvetic nation; and, at the treaty of Westphalia, 1648, they were acknowledged free and independent, as the United Provinces were at the same treaty. In 1712, a war commenced between the Protestant and Popish cantons, wherein the Catholics were unsuccessful, losing Baden, and other territories. In this war, the canton of Bern alone brought 40,000 men into the field. These cantons were much more considerable, before they were disunited by differences about religion.

Bern, and the largest cantons, are aristocracies. In Bern, which is the largest, the legislative power is lodged in the great council, or diet, consisting of 299 of the most substantial inhabitants; and

the executive power in a senate of twenty-seven, elected out of the great council. In the little democratical cantons, the legislative power is lodged in the diffusive body of the people; and every male above sixteen, whether master or servant, has a vote in making laws, and in the choice of magistrates. There is a general diet of all the cantons held in Baden, at Midsummer, annually. The Protestants also have a general diet of their persuasion, and the Papists another of theirs; but they seldom sit longer than a month.

The Protestant cantons are all Calvinists, or Presbyterians, and so are their allies of Geneva.

The language in Switzerland is either High Dutch, French, or Italian, according to the countries which lye next to them. At Geneva, it is said, they speak good French, but in other parts of Switzerland it is very much corrupted.

The country of the Grisons, allies of Switzerland, was part of the ancient Rætia, and consists of three divisions, 1. The Grisons, or Grey League. 2. The League of the House of God; and, 3. The Ten Jurisdictions; these are subdivided into several lesser communities, which are so many democracies, every male above sixteen having a vote in the government of the state, and election of magistrates. And deputies, or representatives from the several communities, constitute the general diet of the Grison leagues, which meet annually, in March, at the capital city of Coire; but they can conclude nothing without the consent of the several communities which send them.

Two thirds of the subjects of the Grison Leagues are Protestants, of the sect of Calvin. The Valteline, with the countries of Bormio and Chiavanna, were formerly part of the Duchy of Milan, and ceded to the Grisons by the Sforzas, Dukes of Milan, in consideration of their services in defence of that Duchy; but it was provided, that the Popish religion only should be professed there. These are fruitful countries; and the Valteline being a valley, by which Germany has an easy communication with Italy, the possession of it has been much contended for by the Germans and French, in their Italian wars.

The rest of the allies of Switzers, viz. the Valais, St Gall, and Tockenbourg, are so many distinct republics; and so is Neuschattel, though the king of Prussia is styled Sovereign of that territory.

NETHERLANDS.

THE Seventeen Provinces were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy in the German Empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low-Countries, from their situation in respect of Germany.

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EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 300 } between { 49 and 54 North latitude.
Breadth 200 } { 2 and 7 East longitude.

They are bounded by the German Sea on the North; by Germany on the East; by Lorrain and France on the South; and by the British Channel on the West.

I shall, for the sake of perspicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the Seventeen Provinces under two great divisions: First, the Northern, which contains the Seven United Provinces, usually known by the name of *Holland*; Secondly, the Southern, containing the Austrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overysfel, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one Sovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length, 150 } between { 51 and 54 North latitude.
Breadth nearly } { 3 and 7 East longitude.
the same. }

The following is the most satisfactory account we meet with of their geographical division, including the Texel and other Islands:

Countries Names.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
United Provinces.					
Calvinists.	Overysfel,	1,900	66	50	Devenier.
	Holland,	1,800	84	52	AMSTERDAM, { N. L. 52-25. E. Lon. 5-4.
	Gelderland,—1st,	986	50	40	Nimeguen.
	Friesland,	810	44	34	Leuwarden.
	Zutphen,—2d,	644	37	33	Zutphen.
	Groningen,	540	45	37	Groningen.
	Utrecht,	450	41	22	Utrecht.
	Zealand,	303	29	24	Middleburg.
	(Texel and other Islands,	113			
Total . . .		7,546			

Rivers.] 1. The Rhine forms itself into several branches on entering this country, the chief of which are the Waal, and the Leek. The Waal and the Leek join, 2. The Maase, which, running from East to West, fall into the German Sea, below Rotterdam.

3. The

3. The Yssel runs North, and falls into the Zuider Sea.

The Rhine anciently ran in one channel by Utrecht and Leyden; but this being mostly cheaked up, it formed the two rivers above-mentioned.

4. The Scheld rises in Picardy, and runs N. E. by Cambray, Tournay, Ghent, and Antwerp, below which last city it divides into two branches, the one called the Western Scheld, and the other Ofter Scheld; the first separating Flanders from Zealand, and the other running North by Bergen-op-zoom, and afterwards East, between the Islands of Beveland and Schowen, falls into the sea a little below.

5. The Vecht runs from East to West through the Provinces of Overysel, and falls in the Zuider Sea. Besides which there are numberless canals. There are few harbours in the United Provinces; the best are Rotterdam, Helvoetsluys, and Flushing; as to Amsterdam, though it be one of the greatest ports in Europe, it is situated on so shallow water that loaded ships cannot enter it.

Air.] The air of these Provinces is very thick and foggy, until it is purified by the frost in Winter, when the East wind usually sets in for about four months; then their harbours are frozen up, which is a disadvantage to their foreign traffic, but very necessary for their health. Their Winters are much colder than with us, who lye under the same parallel, yet their Summers are hotter. The moisture of the air causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country; which is the reason of their perpetual rubbing and scouring, and the brightness and cleanliness in their houses, so much taken notice of. The neighbouring sea salt-marshes and bogs occasion this country to be very unhealthful in Spring and Autumn. Their diseases are chiefly the scurvy and gout, and they seldom escape malignant fevers in dry Summers; an old man is seldom known in this country; both men and women soon grow corpulent; and perhaps shorten their lives by spirituous liquors; another reason of their ill state of health may be their using no manner of exercise either on horseback, or on foot; for they go from one town to another in a covered boat, in which they are scarce sensible of any motion.

Soil and Produce.] As to the soil, they have made many of their bogs good meadows, by draining them; and their cattle, which they buy lean in the North of Germany and Denmark, grow to a prodigious bulk; they make a great quantity of good butter and cheese, but their country produces very little corn: however, there is greater plenty of corn, as well as the produce of almost every country, than is to be met with any where: the United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; many kinds of grain may be frequently purchased here cheaper than in the countries where they grow; though butter, cheese, fish, and wild fowl, are all that the country itself affords. They have no timber growing, and yet plank and materials for buildings may be purchased cheaper here than any other country; they have no other fuel but turf; most of their coals are received from Britain; their turf they burn chiefly in stoves, so that a fire is seldom seen in a room.

Animals.]

Animals.] Here are the same animals as in England; their horses, neat cattle, and sheep, are of a larger size than in any other nation of Europe; they have also wild boars and wolves, likewise multitudes of storks, which build and hatch in their chimneys, and they will not suffer them to be destroyed; the storks leave the country about the middle of August with their young, and return the February following: their sea and river fish are the same as ours. They have no herrings, but excellent oysters about the Islands of the Texel.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contain, according to the best accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants; besides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch, (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general,) seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour, and the artificial drains with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea by their herring fisheries, for they dispose of their most valuable fish to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. Their air and temperature of the climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldness with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for in all other respects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable subjects. Their attention to the constitution and independency of their country is owing to the same principle, for they were never known to effect a change of government but when they thought themselves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their interest at stake, witness their sea-wars with England and France. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are a plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and ill-mannered sort of people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit and affection for each other. Their tradesmen are in general very honest in all their dealings; and they seldom use more words than are necessary about their business. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unsociable. Though a Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality; and though they have been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery, yet they are in general quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, theft, or violence. As the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both sexes, it is

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owing in a great measure to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler here than in other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour, nor warm enough for love; so that the sester passions are no natives of this country; and love itself is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, convenience, or habit.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people. Every man almost spends less than his income, be that what it will; nor does it enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of expence should equal the annual profit; and, when this happens, they think at least that they have lived that year to no purpose; and the report of it discredits a man among them as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries; but this rigid frugality is not so universal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them as well as the other nations of Europe. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants, whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking booths, skittle and other grounds, and small pieces of water, which form the amusements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters upon ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crouds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women, (some of the latter carrying a basket of eggs, or other country-ware, upon their heads to market,) in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

Dress.] Their dress formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jerkins, plain mobbs, short petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickness and clumsiness of their persons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks; and more particularly amongst the seafaring people.

Religion.] The established religion here is the Presbyterian or Calvinism; none but Presbyterians are admitted into any office or post in the government, excepting the army; yet all religions and sects are tolerated, and have their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the Papists and Jews are very numerous.

Language.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of fashion speak English and French. Their Lord's prayer runs thus: *Onse Vader, die in de hemelin zyn; uwen naam worde geheylicht: uw koninkryk kome: uwe wille geschiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden; ons dagelicks broot geef ons heeden, ene vergeeft onse schulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onse schuldenaaren: ons en laet ons niet in verser kingemaer versto on van den boesen. Amen.*

Learning,

Learning, and learned Men.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand at the head almost of learning itself, as Boerhaave was lately thought to do in medicine. Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magistrates keep two copies of a book entitled, *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koster in 1440. The most elegant edition of the classics came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the State that it had almost proved fatal to the government, witness the ridiculous disputes about Arminianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burmann stand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the classics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and latter times have produced a Van Haaren, who is possessed of some poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 published poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities, chiefly because their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments in universities, church, or state.

Universities.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

Antiquities and Curiosities, } The prodigious dykes, some of
Natural and Artificial. } which are said to be seventeen ells in thickness, mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are stupenduous, and hardly to be equalled. A stone quarry near Maestricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of subterraneous palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high. The Stadthouse of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world: it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is exceedingly convenient and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the famous university of Leyden; such as a shirt made of the intrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muscles and tendons of the human body curiously set up by Professor Stalpert Vander-Weil, &c.

Cities, Towns, and other Edifices, } Amsterdam, which is built
public and private. } upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, (next to London,) the greatest commercial city in the world; in this respect, some have even given it the preference to London, though we cannot see with what propriety. Its conveniencies for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. This city, however, labours under two great disadvantages, bad air,

and the want of fresh wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain-water in reservoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth: its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat of government of the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors and strangers of all distinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about 40,000: it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are known in the annals of literature for the accommodations of the scholars who attend their universities, and the beauty and conveniences of their public schools. Sardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workshop where Peter the Great, of Muscovy, in person, served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is subject to Prussia, and its capital city Gelder.

*Inland Navigation, Canals, and } The usual way of passing from
Manner of Travelling. }* town to town is by covered boats, called treckscuits, which are dragged along the canals by horses, on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop, precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling, though it may appear to strangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed at a small expence into various parts of Germany, the Austrian and French Netherlands. A treckscuit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruin; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may read, smoke, eat, drink, or converse with people of various nations, dresses and languages. Near Amsterdam, and other large cities, a traveller is astonished when he beholds the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant, neat country houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure-grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, statues, and temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of amusement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather spend much of their time in those little temples, smoking, reading, or viewing the passengers, to whom they appear complaisant and polite.

Commerce and Manufactures.] An account of the Dutch commerce, would comprehend that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a state to which they do not trade. In this they are assisted by the populousness of their country, the cheapness of their labour, and, above all, by their water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. Their East-India Company have had the monopoly of the fine spices for more than a hundred years, and is the most opulent and powerful of any in the world. Their capital city in India

dia is Batavia, which is said to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Asia. Here the Viceroy appears in greater splendor than the Stadtholder; and it is said the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother country. They have other settlements in India, but none more pleasant, healthful, or useful, than that on the Cape of Good-Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ships of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made some dispositions to ship themselves off to their settlements in India; so great was their aversion from the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale-fisheries (the former upon the Scots coast) which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they excel at home in numberless branches of trade, such as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, delft-ware, finely refined salt; their oil-mills, starch manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damasks; their saw-mills for timber, for shipping and houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woolen, cotton, and silk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dressing; the great quantity of their coin and specie, assisted by their banks, most especially by that of Amsterdam; their East-India trade; and their general industry and frugality. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fisheries, are in the same flourishing state now as they were in the beginning of this century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general industry of the inhabitants.

Public Trading Companies.] Of these, the capital is the East-India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immense wealth, having divided sixty per cent, and sometimes forty, about the year 1660; at present the dividends are much reduced; but in 124 years, the proprietors on an average, one year with another, divided somewhat above twenty-four per cent. As late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch West-India Company, the same year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amsterdam is thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and is under an excellent direction: it is said by Sir William Temple, to contain the greatest treasure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may seem a paradox is, that this bank is so far from paying any interest, that the money in it is worth somewhat more than current cash in common payments. Mr Anderson supposes, that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which is kept in the vaults of the Stadthouse, amount to thirty-six (though others say only to thirty) millions sterling.

Constitution.] In these provinces are a great number of Republics independent of each other, united for the common defence.

The States General consist of deputies from every province, and are usually about thirty in number; some provinces send two, others more; but every province has no more than one voice; and whatever resolution the States General take, must be confirmed by every province.

vince, and by every city and republic in that province, before it has the force of law, but this formality hath been set aside in times of great danger and emergency.

The deputies of the eighteen cities, and one representative of the nobility, constitute the States of the Province of Holland. Amsterdam, and every one of those eighteen cities, are separate and independent Republics. In Amsterdam the legislative power is lodged in thirty-six senators, who continue members of the senate for life, and when one dies, his place is filled by the survivors; the senate also elect the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland. The people have nothing to do, either in the choice of their representatives, or their magistrates; what alteration the constitution may receive from their late struggles for a Stadtholder is but uncertain; but the Prince of Orange seems to be impowered, either directly, or by his influence, to change both the deputies, magistrates, and officers in every province and city; he is President in the States of every province, tho' he has not so much as a seat or vote in the States General; but, as he influences the States of each province to send what deputies he pleases to the States General, he has in effect the appointing the persons that constitute the States General, and may be deemed Sovereign of the United Provinces.

The Stadtholder had once a very great power; we find one of their Stadtholders appointing what towns should send deputies, or members to the assembly of the States of Holland; but the Stadtholdership was never hereditary till now. It is observed, that the States passed by the first Stadtholder's eldest son, and appointed his younger son, Prince Maurice, their Stadtholder. And at other times they have suppressed the Stadtholdership entirely. This high office was settled on William Charles Henry Frizo, elected 12th June 1733, and his issue male, and in default thereof on the female issue.

There is a Council of State, consisting of Deputies from the several Provinces; to which Holland sends three; Gelderland, Zealand, and Utrecht, two a-piece, and the Provinces of Friesland and Groningen each of them one. In this Council they do not vote by provinces, as in the States General, but by personal voices; and every deputy presides by turns, and the Stadtholder has a decisive voice in this Council, where the votes happen to be equal. This Council calculates what taxes or forces will be necessary for the current year, and prepares other matters for the determination of the States General. In an assembly of the States of a particular Province, one dissenting voice prevents their coming to any resolution.

Arms.] The arms of the Seven Provinces are or, a lion gules, holding a scymetre in one of his paws, and a bundle of seven arrows in the other, with this motto, *Concordia res parva crescent.*

Forces.] Their forces, in time of peace, used to be about 40,000, 25,000 whereof were in the barrier towns, and paid by the revenues arising in the territories about those towns, granted by the barrier treaty in 1715. The Stadtholder is commander in chief, and has under him a Field Marshal General.

No nation in Europe, except England, can fit out a more formidable

dable fleet of men of war than the Dutch; they have always so much timber prepared for building ships at Sardam, and all other materials for rigging them, that they can, for many days, build a man of war every day, if they please; and no nation is better furnished with seamen to man them.

The Dutch employ great numbers of foreigners in their service, especially Swifs and Scots; they durst not trust the government entirely to the natives while they were guilty of such oppressions; no government acts more arbitrarily than the Dutch Republics; they can put any man to death without bringing him to a trial, as they have done many, if he confesses his crime, in which case he forfeits no part of his estate.

In levying their taxes, the province of Holland raises almost as much as all the rest, the trade, and consequently their wealth, being equal to that of all the other provinces; and as the city of Amsterdam and their East-India usually influence the province of Holland, so Holland has a very great influence on the rest of the provinces, and in a manner act the part of Sovereigns when there is no Stadtholder, and for that reason, in former times, it usually opposed the creating a Stadtholder.

Taxes.] The States usually raise between two and three millions annually, by an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; but every province and city may vary in the manner, and levy their respective quotas of taxes they see fit. The duties on goods and merchandize are exceeding low; Holland is a kind of free port, which is the source of their vast traffic. Their wealthiest merchants therefore pay little more towards the support of the government than the common people. Notwithstanding that the Dutch taxes are heavier than in most nations, yet every province is greatly in debt, it is said; and, as this must affect their public credit, there are immense sums lodged in the English funds.

DUTCH GOLD COIN.

l. s. d.

Ducat of Holland 0 9 3

DUTCH SILVER COINS.

l. s. d.

Ducatoon of Holland 0 5 3
 Pattagon, or rix-dollar of Holland 0 4 4
 The crown piece of Holland, or sixty stivers 0 5 2
 The guilder, or piece of twenty stivers 0 1 8
 The ten schelling piece of Zealand, or piece of sixty stivers 0 5 2
 The lion-dollar of Holland 0 3 7
 The schelling is a base coin not worth a penny, but goes for sixpence.

DUTCH COPPER.

An Orke, the fourth part of a stiver or penny.

The revolutions will be found in the description of the Austrian Netherlands.

AUSTRIAN

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 200 } Breadth 200 }	between	{ 49 and 52 North latitude. { 2 and 7 East longitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by the United Provinces on the North; by Germany, on the East; by Lorrain, Champagne, and Picardy, in France, on the South; and by another part of Picardy, and the English Channel, on the West.

As this country belongs to three different Powers, the Austrians, French, and Dutch, we shall be more particular in distinguishing the provinces and towns belonging to each State.

1. PROVINCE OF BRABANT.

Subdivisions.

Chief towns.

1. Dutch Brabant,	{	Boisleduc,	{ N
		Breda,	
		Bergen-op-zoom,	
		Maestricht, S. E.	
		Grave, N. E.	
2. Austrian Brabant, . . .	{	Lillo,	{ N. W.
		Steenbergen,	
		BRUSSELS, E. lon. 4 deg.	
		6 min. N. lat. 50-50.	
		Louvain,	
	{	Vilvorden,	{ in the middle.
		Landen,	

2. ANTWERP; and 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though surrounded by it, and subject to the house of Austria.

4. PROVINCE OF LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief towns,	{	Limburg, subject to Austria.	{ Subject to the Dutch.
		Dalem,	
		Fauquemont, or	
		Valkenburg,	

5. PROVINCE

5. PROVINCE OF LUXEMBURG.

Subdivisions. Chief towns.

Austrian Luxembourg, . . .	Luxemburg.	} S E.
French Luxembourg, . . .	Thionville, Montmedy,	

6. PROVINCE OF NAMUR, IN THE MIDDLE,

Subject to Austria.

Chief towns,	{ Namur, on the Sambre and Maeffe, Charleroy on the Sambre.
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7. PROVINCE OF HAINAUT.

Austrian Hainaut,	{ Mons, Aeth, Enguin, Valenciennes,	} in the middle.
French Hainaut,	{ Bouchain, Conde, Landrecy,	

8. PROVINCE OF CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France,	{ Cambrai, E. of Arras. Crevecour, S. of Cambrai.
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9. PROVINCE OF ARTOIS.

Subject to France,	{ Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, St Omer, E. of Boulogne. Aire, S. of S. Omer. St Venant, E. of Aire. Bethune, S. E. of Aire. Terouen, S. of St Omer.
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10. PROVINCE OF FLANDERS.

Dutch Flanders,	{ Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulst, N. Sas van Ghent, N. Ghent, on the Scheld. Bruges, Ostend, Newport,	} NW. near the sea.
Austrian Flanders,	{ Oudenard on the Scheld. Courtray, Dixmude, Ypres, N. of Lifle. Tournay on the Scheld. Menin on the Lis.	

Subdivisions.

Subdivisions. EXUI TO 30 Chief towns.

French Flanders,

Lille, W. of Tournay.
 Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais.
 Douay, W. of Arras.
 Mardike, W. of Dunkirk.
 St Amand, N. of Valenciennes.
 Gravelin, E. of Calais.

Air, Soil, and Produce.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in Winter and Summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn, bear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the amenity of its roads and villages, and the fertility of its lands. If it has fallen off in later times it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; though it is still a most desirable and pleasant country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, scarcely a single hill in it. Brabant, and the rest of the provinces, consist of little hills and vallies, woods, inclosed grounds, and champaign fields.

Rivers and Canals.] The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

Metals and Minerals.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimstone, are found in Luxemburg, Limburg, and Leige, as are some marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossile nitre.

Revenues.] The revenues of the Netherlands, when under the dominion of the Spaniards, were not sufficient to defray the charges of the civil government, that is, after the revolt of the Seven Provinces, and the decay of their commerce; for in their flourishing state, when Antwerp was the centre of trade, there was not a kingdom in Europe which yielded a larger revenue to its Princes. But their finances having been better regulated by the Imperialists, and their trade something revived by the vast demand of late for their fine linen and lace, they are not so great a burden to the Imperialists,

as they were to Spain: However, it is still a question, whether the public revenues will maintain the charges of the government, even in time of peace? The ordinary revenues of the government are either those arising from the demesne lands, or from the customs. If there is an extraordinary tax to be raised, it is demanded of the States of the respective provinces, with whom the court usually maintains so good a correspondence, as not to meet with many denials. But the supplies must be precarious, because the consent of every single member is requisite to complete the grant: But the French Netherlands bring a considerable revenue to the crown.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions. } The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of Flanders and the Austrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honest people; but their manners are somewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight desperately in defence of their country; at present they make no great figure. The Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous, but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them on a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageantries. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

Dress and Language.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere French-men and women in both these particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dress like the Dutch boors, and their language is the same; but the better sort of people speak French, and dress in the same taste. As these countries contain a mixture of Dutchmen, French, and Flemings, those on the frontiers of Holland very much resemble the Dutch, and speak the same language; and the provinces subject to France usually speak French, and resemble them in their manners; the rest are a mixture between both, and the language a different dialect of the German from that of the Dutch. Their Lord's prayer runs thus: *Nos pere, qui et aux cieus, sanctifie soi te nom adveen tou rejam: ta volente je fait in terre come es cieus: donne nos aujou duy no pain quotidien: et pardonne nos del comme no pardono non nos del beux: et ne no indu en tentation, mais delivre nos des maux ainsi soit il.* Amen.

Religion.] The religion of the Ten Provinces, except that small part of Brabant and Flanders subject to the Dutch, are Papists; but their governors did not think fit to provoke the Flemings by establishing the Inquisition here, as Philip II. had projected. We meet with as little bigotry in Flanders as in any Roman Catholic country.

Learning, learned Men, and Artists.] The society of Jesuits, before its dissolution, produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems, and plays, are their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Flamingo, or the Flemings

Flemings models for heads, particularly those of children; have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

Universities.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St Omer. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. Duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges, by a grant of Pope Sixtus IV. This university has the privilege of presenting to all the religious livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in those provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are also found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals of Antoninus Pius Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

Cities.] This article has employed several large volumes, published by different authors, but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contained the circuit of ten miles, but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner void. Bruges, formerly much noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now become an inconsiderable place. Ostend is now no more than a convenient harbour for traders; and Ypres, a strong garrison town. The same may be said of Charleroy and Namur, which lye in the Austrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of the Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourishing manufactures and places of trade, is now only adorned with pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Brussels retains some of its ancient manufactures; and being the residence of the governor or viceroy of the Austrian Netherlands, is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry and thread lace-shop, with the houses of some bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the first exploits of the Dutch, soon after they threw off the Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by sinking vessels, loaded with stone, in the mouth of the Scheld; which shut up the entrance of that river by ships of burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-sufferers in the cause of liberty.

It may be observed here, that every gentleman's house is a castle or *chateau*; and that there are more strong towns in the Netherlands than in all the rest of Europe; but since the decline of their trade, by the rise of that of the English and Dutch, those towns are considerably diminished in size, and whole streets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, provisions are extremely good and cheap. A stranger may dine in Brussels on seven or eight dishes of meat for less than a shilling English. Travelling

welling is safe, reasonable, and delightful, in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad causeway, and run for some miles in a straight line, till they terminate with the view of some noble buildings.

Commerce and Manufactures.] The chief manufactures of the French and Austrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linen and lace; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled, particularly in that species called cambric from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

Constitution and Government.] The Austrian Netherlands are still considered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, is the sole director and summoning prince. This circle contributes its share to the imposts of the empire, and sends an envoy to the diet, but is not subject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, appointed by the court of Vienna, who, at present, is his Serene Highness Prince Charles of Lorraine, brother to the late, and uncle to the present Emperor. The face of an assembly, or parliament, for each province, is still kept up, and consists of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Brussels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governor seldom or never finds any resistance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, subject to the regent; and causes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

Military Strength.] The troops maintained here by the Empress-Queen are chiefly employed in the frontier garrisons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Austrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of those garrisons, and the Dutch two, yet both of them are miserably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at least 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more.

Arms.] The arms of Flanders are or, a lion sable and languid gules.

Archbishopricks.] Cambray, Maline, or Mechlin.

Bishopricks.] Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St Omers, Namur, and Ruremonde.

Universities.] Louvain, Douay, and St Omers.

Coins.] The German, Dutch, and French coins are current here.

History.] The inhabitants of the Netherlands were anciently much renowned for their valour. Julius Cæsar employed them in his war with the Gauls, and they every where routed and dispersed that warlike people; nay, so sensible were the Romans of their intrepidity and military skill, that they regarded them rather as allies than subjects; neither indeed did they ever properly subdue them. In consequence of this they were exempt from all tributes and imposts; and after-

wards obtained the honourable title of friends and brethren of the Roman people; but this was particularly applicable to the inhabitants of Betaw, an island formed by the Rhine and Vahal, or Wahaal.

We know little more of the ancient history of the Batavians, than that the fierce and warlike spirit of that people obliged the Romans to keep strong garrisons on the banks of the Rhine; that they revolted against Constantine; performed signal services to Theodosius in Britain, and, with the rest of the empire, they fell under the power of the Franks; were governed by Charlemagne and his successors, till, upon the decline of that family, the great lords and officers of the crown, taking advantage of the weakness of the reigning princes, rendered their governments hereditary in their families.

For some time after this revolution the Netherlands were in a very unsettled state, being sometimes governed by one prince, sometimes divided into a number of independent states, and in 868, that part of the country which we now call Holland, began to be governed by Counts, of whom *Thieri*, general to Charles the Bald, was undoubtedly the first. Ten years after, the province of Gelderland also elected a chief of their own, by whom and his descendants they were governed for a long time. The province of Utrecht was governed by bishops as early as the year 696, but in 995 the city and province were almost totally ruined by the Normans. However, it soon recovered, and continued independent till the time of the Emperor Charles V. who, having conquered Gelderland after a very brave resistance on the part of the natives, bought the sovereignty of Utrecht, and united these provinces to those of Holland and Zealand, which had also submitted to him. He caused an instrument to be drawn up, in consequence of which the provinces were to be governed by the Stadtholder, cemented so strictly, that they should never be separated by marriage, sale, bargain, or engagement; and united so intricately, that the same laws should take place in all; criminals banished from one province could not be screened in another; and, in a word, it was proposed that the government, money, customs, and laws, should be the same in Holland, Zealand, and Utrecht; each, however, reserving its own particular rights, exclusive of the general union. But though this plan of union could not be rendered complete, or fully executed, it nevertheless, was renewed in 1584. The other provinces were alarmed at the confederacy; but such arguments were urged as quieted their apprehensions; and the union at last became general among the Seven Provinces.

The inhabitants of Friesland were conquered by the Romans under Darifus; but on the death of that general they revolted, and could never afterwards be subdued. On the decline of the Roman Empire they fell under the power of the Franks. In a short time, after, they refused to pay tribute, and Pepin king of France was obliged to engage in a war with Radbode king of Friesland. The latter was defeated; but his valour procured him the esteem of Pepin, whose daughter he married. This, however, was of short duration; Charles Martel returned with a numerous army, gave battle to Radbode, but was entirely defeated, with very great slaughter. In 715, the former again invaded Friesland with a formidable army, fought many bloody battles, and at last so far subdued the spirit of the inhabitants,

habitants, that they consented to acknowledge his *superiority*, but not his sovereignty. Under Charlemagne they were totally subdued, and agreed to pay a tribute of thirty pounds of silver annually; however, their services were so great in his wars with the Saxons, that he afterwards exempted them from all tribute, and declared them free. In 838 this province was again invaded, and most cruelly ravaged by the Normans, and scarce had it recovered from these devastations before it was treated in like manner by the Danes. After this the state was ravaged by civil wars, which at last terminated in the loss of its liberties; but in what manner this revolution happened is unknown; it is certain, that in the year 1417, Friesland belonged to the Emperor of Germany.

Overijssel was at first peopled by a German nation called the Saxians, whose manners are excellently described by Tacitus. They were never thoroughly subdued by the Romans, though they were so by Charlemagne, who governed the province by Counts. In the division of the French Empire between Charles the Bald, and Lewis of Bavaria, the province of Overijssel was adjudged to the latter; but he was obliged to support his right by perpetual wars with the Emperor Lotharius, who desolated the country. It then became subject to the bishops of Utrecht, by whom the people were oppressed to such a degree that they resolved at last to put a stop to their tyranny. The lords or barons entered into confederacies, and armed their vassals against the bishops: bloody battles were fought; but at last the fortune of the bishops prevailing, the barons were induced to ask the assistance and protection of the German emperors; thus calling in oppressors much greater than those under whom they had formerly groaned. The imperial troops at first introduced, not being sufficient fully to expel the ecclesiastical army, plundered and destroyed the country, under pretence of defending the privileges of the people. The neighbouring states took advantage of the ruinous condition of Overijssel, and made terrible irruptions. At last the province experienced a sudden and extraordinary revolution, owing to the prodigality of John III. bishop of Utrecht. This prelate had contracted such an immense load of debt, as rendered it necessary for him to mortgage a part of his territories. He found means to involve the province in his distress, and, to extricate themselves, the states were obliged to dispose of several fiefs, which greatly retrenched their extent of dominion. Zealand Twenthe and Vollenhove were sold to the Duke of Gelderland and Earl of Holland. But on the decease of John all these were redeemed, and the power of the bishops restored; who now built castles and forts to overawe the people, and prevent them from attempting to recover their liberties. Yet all these precautions could not prevent the inhabitants of Overijssel from throwing off the yoke, and revolting against David of Burgundy, natural son to Philip the Good, who was elected bishop of Utrecht. In 1457, they openly refused to acknowledge him, disregarded all his spiritual denunciations, and prepared to resist his temporal power. They had even the boldness to accuse the Pope of corruption, and affirm that he had been influenced by the Duke of Burgundy's money to confirm the election. Philip, incensed at this affront, over-run the province, and the inhabitants were at last obliged to submit, in which
state

state of subjection they continued till the province was ceded to Charles V. along with that of Utrecht.

Some writers have ascribed great antiquity to the province of Groningen, deriving its name from the most illustrious Trojan warriors; but though such extravagant assertions merit no consideration, a learned antiquarian of that country hath indisputably proved, that Groningen is the citadel built by the Roman general Corbulo, to restrain the incursions of the Frieslanders. Hence we must conclude, that Groningen was at first a Roman colony, which on the decline of the empire raised itself to independency: it became afterwards subject to the bishop of Utrecht, though in what manner is not known. In the eleventh century Groningen was a powerful and flourishing city, though dependent on that of Utrecht. The inhabitants revolted, but were reduced, and lost great part of their territory. Some time afterwards this city became the subject of contention between the bishops of Utrecht and the Earls of Holland. Each pretended a right, and the emperor, as feudal lord, claimed to himself the power of acting as umpire. In the midst of this contention, however, the city flourished so much that the inhabitants began to aspire not only at independency, but at the conquest of the neighbouring provinces, especially that of Friesland. Albert of Saxony was sent by the emperor Maximilian to check the designs formed by the *Grunns*, for so the inhabitants of Groningen were called. The emperor proposed to reduce Friesland under his own obedience, and this he thought could not be more easily accomplished than by protecting the province against the power of the *Grunns*. A war ensued; Albert laid siege to Groningen, and the citizens repelled all his attacks with the utmost valour and magnanimity. After suffering extreme hardships, they entered into a treaty with the bishop of Utrecht, whereby they consented that a judge should be nominated by that prelate to preside in the city, but under the direction of the magistrates, and with this proviso, that the citizens should be left in full possession of their liberties: this treaty was concluded in 1490. Under the protection of the bishop, they hoped to escape the imperial yoke; however, when it was proposed that they should restore to the emperor their conquests in Friesland, the *Grunns* boldly declared, that they would rather hazard all, than abandon what had been purchased by their blood. The war was therefore renewed, Albert was defeated, and died of chagrin; but his sons Henry and George attacked the *Grunns* with such violence and impetuosity that they were obliged to apply for protection to the Duke of Gelderland, and the consequence at last was, that after a tedious and ruinous war the city was surrendered to the emperor Charles V. in 1536.

Thus were all the Netherlands reduced under the power of Spain, (Charles being king of that country as well as emperor of Germany:) they continued in peaceable subjection during his lifetime, but when his son Philip II. came to the throne, the face of affairs was altered. Charles had been free, easy, and affable in his behaviour; Philip was haughty, proud, and harsh in his behaviour, and on all occasions shewed such a partiality for the Spaniards, that his subjects in the Netherlands were greatly disgusted. Besides this cause of discontent may be added some others on the score of religion: the doctrines

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of Luther and Calvin were already established in Germany, and those of Calvin had taken deep root in France: The persecutions carried on against the reformed in both countries were of the utmost service both to England and the Netherlands. The vast commerce of the latter required an increase of inhabitants, and the fugitives were joyfully received without making any inquiry into their religious opinions; and as the doctrine of the Protestants was more agreeable to liberty than that of the catholics, the former made very great progress: Charles V. had published very rigorous edicts against the Lutherans, and it is confidently asserted, that no fewer than 100,000 persons perished by his persecutions. All this cruelty, however, instead of diminishing, increased the number of the Protestants; Mary, Queen of Hungary, sister to the emperor, and governante of the low countries, endeavoured to soften the emperor, and invited him into the low countries to behold with his own eyes how that persecution begat hereby. Charles prudently dropped his severity, but Philip proved inflexible: the more effectually to extirpate the Protestants he established an inquisition similar to that of Spain and Italy. Nothing could be more odious to the Flemings than this horrid tribunal, which they openly loaded with execrations: the people in general were not more incensed at the establishment of the inquisition, than the clergy were at his erecting a number of new bishoprics, under pretence that the former ones were too large. To maintain these new dignities it was necessary to suppress several abbeys, and assign their revenues to the bishops; and thus the abbots, instead of possessing the first place in the assembly of the states, were obliged to yield the precedency to the bishops; and the provinces, instead of three dioceses, found themselves encumbered with no fewer than seventeen, of which three were archbishopricks. The inferior clergy exclaimed against this proceeding as an usurpation of the rights of the church; the nobility called it an innovation dangerous to their liberty, by introducing so many new members into the great council, and the people murmured at this additional restraint on liberty and conscience, by making such a number of spiritual tribunals depending on the King and the Apostolic see. In short, persons of all ranks and degrees cried out against the inquisition and the new bishopricks as a direct breach of the king's oath. But of all the discontented parties only two were distinguished by their birth and abilities: these were William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, governor of Utrecht, Holland, and Zealand, and the Count of Egmond, governor of Flanders and Artois. Of these the former was an experienced statesman, and the latter a warrior: Egmond was also very free in his speech and open in his conduct. He publicly expressed his resentment against Philip's severe edicts, the establishment of the inquisition, and the regulations made in the church; while the Prince of Orange, then a hostage in France for the execution of the peace of Cambray, discovered that Henry II. and Philip had formed a design of extirpating the Protestants, and gave notice of it to his friends.

The discontents, already sufficiently great, were still farther heightened when Philip's intention of residing in Spain was known, and when he put the government of the Netherlands into the hands of his natural sister, the Duchess of Parma, assisted by the council of Granvele,

Granvele, a detested Ecclesiastic, who immediately began to persecute the Protestants most furiously. Before Philip's departure the states respectfully petitioned that the foreign troops might be withdrawn from the provinces, by which their sovereign first saw that his designs were suspected; he therefore pretended to comply with the request, but instead of that, appointed the Prince of Orange and Count Egmond to the command of 3000 Spanish troops left in the country; but both of them refused the employment as unconstitutional.

For these and other reasons, the Duchess of Parma no sooner entered upon her government in the year 1560, than complaints poured in upon her from all quarters, especially against the establishment of new bishopricks. In this the Duchess first attempted to soothe them, but then the inquisition became equally the subject of complaint; together with the conduct of Cardinal Granvele who had erected it. The king was solicited to remove him; but this being refused, the people passed so many affronts upon the hated minister, that he was at last obliged to resign of his own accord, and retire into Spain.

The resignation of Granvele did not produce the expected effect. Two of his creatures, Viglius, and Count Barlaimont, were pushed into the council of state, and trod exactly in his footsteps. By this the people were so much exasperated, that one of Philip's ministers represented to him the danger of a general revolt, if he did not use his subjects with more humanity; to which the king gave the following extraordinary reply, that "he had rather be without subjects than be a king of heretics." In consequence of this resolution he published the decrees of the council of Trent all over the low countries, and determined to enforce them with the utmost rigour. At last Count Egmond was sent into Spain by the Duchess of Parma herself, in order to represent to the king the dangerous and distracted state of the provinces at that time. Here he was well received, and the king remitted the rigour of the inquisition, in consequence of which every thing was restored to tranquillity; though many people, among whom was the Prince of Orange, suspected Philip's sincerity very much.

It soon appeared that these suspicions were founded on too just grounds. In 1565 the king disclaimed all the interpretations put upon his instructions to Count Egmond; ordered that the decrees of the council of Trent should be strictly observed; that the utmost assistance of the civil power should be given to the inquisition; and that all heretics should be put to death without mercy. At this the people were exasperated beyond any possibility of reconciliation. Their indignation was raised by the sight of men and women daily perishing in the flames, while the constancy of the sufferers excited their admiration. A confederacy was formed against the inquisition, and was subscribed even by Catholics as well as Protestants. The confederates, headed by one Henry de Bredenrode, descended from the old Earls of Holland, and much respected in the country, went to Brussels, and petitioned the Duchess against the inquisition in such strong terms, that she found herself obliged to promise all that was asked, and employed all her interest with the king to abolish the inquisition, and in the mean time that court was strictly forbid to proceed in their prosecutions for heresy.

It is agreed by all historians, Sir William Temple only excepted, that king Philip proved inflexible to all the remonstrances and intreaties of his sister, and that the only mitigation of his cruelty she could obtain was, that heretics should thenceforth be hanged instead of being burned. Before the people proceeded to extremities, however, they sent deputies to the king at Madrid; but perceiving that he proceeded in his usual insidious and treacherous way, they broke out into open rebellion; but as these rebellious acts commenced among the lower people, the governors found means to quell them, and a new oath of allegiance was proposed, by which every one swore to regard as traitors and enemies those whom the king thought proper to proscribe. The persecution raged with redoubled violence, and thousands of poor wretches expired under the extremity of torture. At last a resolution was taken of sending the Duke of Alva with an army into the Netherlands, the more fully to enforce obedience to the king's will; and this resolution was executed in 1567. He behaved in such a manner, that the people seemed to have taken a general resolution of abandoning the country; and the Duchess of Parma acquainted the king, that above 100,000 persons had, in the space of a few days, fled, with all their effects, into Germany; for which reason she begged leave to resign her government before she was left quite alone. Her request was readily granted, and thus the people being left at the mercy of the cruel Duke of Alva, the whole country became a scene of horror and devastation, and among the rest was put to death Count Egmond, whom we have already mentioned as one of the great supports of the Protestant cause.

In 1568 the Prince of Orange, who had retired into Germany, found means to assemble a small army, with which he attempted to relieve his distressed country; but after various unsuccessful attempts, was obliged to disband it the following year, by which means the Duke of Alva was left at full liberty to act as he thought proper. It was impossible for human nature to bear such tyranny. The Protestants fitted out great numbers of privateers, which distressed the trade of their adversaries; and, in 1571, made a conquest of the small town of Briel in the Island of Voorn, at the entrance of the Maese.

This was the first beginning of success to the Protestant cause, and greatly animated the malecontents. The Duke of Alva dispatched one Bossa to retake the place; but he was repulsed with great loss, and the Prince of Orange soon became master of Dalfshaben, a town seated on the opposite bank of the Maese. This was quickly followed by the reduction of North Holland, Mons, Ruremonde, Mechlin, Oudenarde, and Dendermonde, under the same jurisdiction, and in the mean time the States General declared against the Duke of Alva. This success, however, was soon checked by the reduction of Mons, by the Spaniards, who afterwards made themselves masters of Harlem; but in the mean time the Prince of Orange made himself master of Warden, where his army committed the most horrid cruelties; his party continued every day to gain new advantages by sea, and the Spaniards being foiled before a small town called Alomar, the Duke of Alva resigned his authority.

Alva was succeeded by Don Lewis de Requesnès, who had recei-

ved orders to push the war with the utmost vigour. By him Lewis of Nassau was defeated and killed as he attempted to join his brother the Prince of Orange, but the Spaniards being every where losers at sea, Philip at last condescended to publish a proclamation, granting a free pardon to those who had assisted in the Protestant religious assemblies, taken up arms, and otherwise violated the laws: the Prince of Orange, however, was excepted from the general amnesty, and a proviso was added, by which all that were admitted into the king's favour should produce an attestation of their having solemnly renounced heresy. This act was unanimously rejected by the Hollanders, and the war renewed with great fury. Requesnes laid siege to Leyden, but met with a most obstinate resistance; the inhabitants submitting even to feed on dead carcases rather than yield to their cruel and treacherous enemy. All their desperate valour, however, would not have availed them, had not providence interposed in their favour. A violent South-West wind drove the sea with such force against the works of the besiegers, that they were obliged to abandon the enterprise.

It is impossible for us to recount all the varieties of fortune which took place in this remarkable war. In 1576, the successes of the Spaniards had been so alarming, that the inhabitants of Holland and Zealand offered the sovereignty of their territory to the Duke of Anjou. The treaty, however, came to nothing, but the Prince of Orange took the advantage of it to establish a mart at Calais for disposing of the prizes made by his party. On the other hand, Philip was distressed to the last degree by the expence of the war; his troops were unpaid, and every day broke out in open rebellion, and in the mean time Requesnes died of an ardent fever, by which every thing was thrown into the utmost confusion. The Prince of Orange lost no opportunity of profiting by these confusions. Every measure was taken for reducing the citadels of Ghent, Antwerp, and Maestricht, the principal places in the hands of the Spaniards. Ghent was quickly taken, but at Antwerp the Orange party were repulsed, and the Spaniards plundered the town, carrying off treasure, amounting to four millions sterling, besides a vast quantity of rich merchandise.

This proved the ruin of the Spanish affairs. Every one joined the confederacy, and they began to solicit the assistance of foreign powers. Queen Elizabeth lent them 20,000*l.* upon condition that the French should not be admitted into the Netherlands, that the Hollanders should accept of reasonable terms of peace, and that the loan should be repaid within the ensuing year; it is even said, she stipulated that no innovations should be made in religion without the consent of king Philip. Soon after this a cessation of hostilities was agreed upon with Don John, the commander of the Spanish forces, who even disbanded the foreign troops, and the Provinces seemed once more quietly to submit to the Spanish yoke. However, it was not long before he gave so much umbrage to the States that he was deposed, and the treaty of 1578 was concluded with Queen Elizabeth, whereby that Princess stipulated to advance them 100,000*l.* *Sterling*, and assist them with 5000 foot and 1000 horse; on condition that the loan was repaid with interest in eight months, that certain towns

were

were ceded to her in security, that the States should defray the expence of transporting the troops, and take them into their pay while they acted in their service. But this treaty was afterwards broke by the Queen, under pretence that the French would harbour suspicions of her having designs upon the Netherlands, and therefore oppose her attempts. In the mean time, the Spaniards sent a reinforcement, consisting of 16,000 foot and 2000 horse, all chosen veterans, under the conduct of Alexander Farnese Duke of Parma, the best officer in the Spanish service. This formidable opposition produced the union of Utrecht, when the Seven Provinces joined in perpetual alliance, and have ever since been known by the name of the Seven United Provinces, or the Republic of Holland.

The principal articles of this alliance are the following :

"The Seven Provinces shall unite themselves in interest as one Province, never to be separated or divided by testament, donation, exchange, sale, or agreement; reserving to each particular province and city all its privileges, rights, customs, and statutes. In all disputes arising between either of the provinces, the rest shall interpose only as mediators. They shall assist each other with life and fortune against every foreign attempt upon any particular province, whether to establish sovereignty, the catholic religion, arbitrary measures, or whatever else may appear inconsistent with the liberties of the provinces, and the intention of the alliance. All frontier towns belonging to the United Provinces shall, if old, be fortified at the expence of the provinces; if new, at the joint expence of the union. The public imposts and duties shall be farmed for three months to the highest bidder, and employed with the king's taxes in the public service. No province, city, or member of the union, shall contract an alliance with any foreign prince or power, without the concurrence of all the other members. Foreign powers shall be admitted into the alliance, only by consent of all the contracting parties. As to religion, the provinces of Holland and Zealand shall act in that particular as they think adviseable; the rest shall adhere to the purport of the edict published by the Archduke Mathias, which prescribed that no man should be oppressed on the account of conscience. All the inhabitants, from the age of eighteen to sixty, shall be trained and disciplined to war. Peace and war shall be declared by the unanimous voice of all the provinces; other matters that concern the internal policy shall be regulated by a majority. The states shall be held in the usual constitutional manner, and coinage shall be deferred to future determination. Finally, the parties agree that the interpretation of these articles shall remain in the States General; but in case of their failing to decide, in the Stadtholder."

In this grand alliance, sketched out by the Prince of Orange, may easily be discerned the judicious steady hand of the master and true patriot. It was so universally approved, that in a short time the cities of Ghent, Nimeguen, Arnheim, Leewarden, Venlo, Ypres, Antwerp, Breda, Bruges, with several other towns, noblemen, and persons of distinction, embraced and signed the union. Thus the foundation of a commonwealth was laid, but in a fluctuating and uncertain state of affairs, when men were actuated by different passions, views, and interests; intimidated by the great strength of the Spanish

monarchy,

monarchy, and supported chiefly by a zealous adherence to liberty, and firm resolution to perish in defence of freedom. The first coin struck after this alliance is expressive of the situation of the infant Republic *.

But though the Republic was thus established as an independent state, it was not acknowledged as such by Spain, till after a long and bloody war, of which our limits will by no means allow us to give the particulars. In general therefore we must only observe, that though these revolters were still so despicable as to be termed *beggars* by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage was such, under the Prince of Orange, and the assistance afforded them by Queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain at last to declare them a free people, about the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent State, under the title of *The United Provinces*. When the house of Austria, which for some ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable, and when the public jealousy was directed against that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had dispossessed the Prince of Orange of the Stadtholdership, the spirit of the people was such, that they revived it in the person of the prince, who was afterwards William III. King of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of Queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy against Lewis XIV. King of France. By their sea-wars with England, under Cromwell, and in the reign of Charles II. they acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power; but, as already mentioned, their military virtue is on the decline.

The Spaniards remained possessed of the other Ten Provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the Duke of Marlborough, General of the Allies, gained the memorable battle of Ramilies, in the year 1706. After which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards Emperor of Germany, their sovereign; and his daughter, the Empress Queen, remained possessed of them until the war of 1741, when the French made an entire conquest of them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and the places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be seen in the preceding general table of divisions.

G E R M A N Y

Boundaries. **I**S bounded on the North by the German sea, Denmark, and the Baltic sea. On the South by Switzerland and the Alps. On the East by Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary. And on the West by the territories of France and the Netherlands.

Situation

* Here was represented a ship labouring amidst the waves, unassisted by sails or oars, with this motto, *Incertum quo fata ferant*.

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Situation and Extent.] It is situated between the latitudes of forty-five and fifty-five degrees North, extending about 600 miles; and between the longitudes of five and nineteen degrees East, extending about 500 miles. This country is divided into nine portions, called circles; three in the North, three in the South, and three in the middle.

Northern circles.	Middle circle.	Southern circles.
1. Upper Saxony.	4. Upper Rhine.	7. Austria.
2. Lower Saxony.	5. Lower Rhine.	8. Bavaria.
3. Westphalia.	6. Franconia.	9. Suabia.

I. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Title.	Posi.	Subj. to	Chief towns.
Pomerania	Pr. Pomerania		N E	Prussia	Stetin
	Sw. Pomerania		N W	Sweden	Stralsund
Brandenburgh	Alemark		W		Stondel
	Middlemark				Berlin
	Newark		E	Prussia	Potsdam
Saxony	Saxony	Duchy			Francfort
	Lusatia	Marq.	E	El. Saxo.	Custrin
	Misnia	Marq.	S	El. Saxo.	Wittenburgh
Thuringia				El. Saxo.	Bantzen
					Gorlets
					Dresden
					Missein
		Langd.	W	E. Mentz	Erfurt
	Saxe Meiningen	Duchy		Duke	Meiningen
	Saxe Zeits	Duchy		Duke	Zeits
	Saxe Altenberg	Duchy	S E	Duke	Altenberg
	Saxe Weimar	Duchy	W	Duke	Weimar
	Saxe Gotha	Duchy	W	Duke	Gotha
	Saxe Eifnach	Duchy	S W	Duke	Eifnach
	Saxe Saalfeld	Duchy		Duke	Saalfeld
	Schwartzburg	County	W	Count	Schwartzburg
	Belchilgen	County	N	Count	Belchilgen
	Mansfield	County	N	Count	Mansfield
	Hall	Duchy	Mid.	Prussia	Hall
	Saxe Naumburg	Duchy		Duke	Naumburg
	Stolberg	County	N W		Stolberg
	Hobenstein	County	W		Northausen
	Anhalt	Princ.	N	Prince	Deffa
					Zerbst
					Bernberg
					Kothen
	Saxe Hall	Bishop	W		Hall
	Voigtland		S		Plowen
	Meriberg	Duchy	Mid.	El. Saxo.	Meriberg

II. Lower

II. LOWER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Title.	Posi.	Subj. to	Chief towns.
Holstein Gottorp	Holstein	Duchy	N	H. Got.	Kiel
	Ditmarsh		W	Denma.	Meldorp
	Stormaria			Denma.	Glucstat
	Hamburg	Sov. St.		State.	Hamburg, Imp.
	Wagerland				Lubec, Imperial
Brunswick Wolfem- bottle	Lawenburg	Duchy	N	El. Han.	Lawenburg
	Brunswick	Duchy	Mid.		Brunswick
	Wolfembottle	Duchy	Mid.	Duke	Wolfembottle
	Rheinstein	County	S		Rheinstein
	Blachenberg	County			Blachenberg
	Calenburg	Duchy			Hanover
	Grubenhagen	Duchy		El. Han.	Grubenhagen
	Göttingen				Göttingen
	Lunenburg	Duchy			Lunenburg
	Zell	Duchy		El. Han.	Zell
	Bremen	Duchy			Bremen, Imp.
	Verdun	Duchy			Verdun
Mecklen- burg	Swerin	Duchy		Duke	Swerin
	Güstrow	Duchy	N	Duke	Güstrow
	Hildesheim	Bishopr.	Mid.	Bishop.	Hildesheim, Im.
	Magdeburg	Duchy		King of	Magdeburg
	Halberstat	Duchy		Prussia	Halberstat

III. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Title.	Posi.	Subj. to	Chief towns.
North	East Friesland	County		K Prussia	Emben, Imp.
	Oldenburg	County		King of	Oldenburgh
	Delmenhorst			Denmark	Delmenhorst
	Hoye			Elect. of	Hoye
	Diepholt			Hanover	Diepholt
	Münster	Bishopr		Bishop	Münster
	Paderborn	Bishopr		Bishop	Paderborn
	Osnaburg	Bishopr		Bishop	Osnaburg
Western	Lippe	County		Count	Lippe
	Minden	Duchy		King of	Pyrmont
	Ravensberg	County		Prussia.	Minden
	Westphalia	Duchy		E. Colog.	Herwerden
	Tecklenburg	County		Count.	Arensburg
	Ritberg	County		Count.	Tecklenburg
	Schawenburg	County		Count	Ritberg
	Cleves	Duchy		Count	Schawenburg
Middle	Berg	Duchy		K Prussia	Cleef
	Juliers	Duchy		El. Pala- tine	Duffeldorf
	Mark	County			Juliers
	Liege	Bishopr		K Prussia	Aix
				Bishop	Ham
	Bentheim	County			Liege
	Steinfurt	County		El. Han. Count	Huy
					Bentheim
					Steinfurt

IV. UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

Division.	Subdivisions.	Title.	Pos.	Subject to	Chief towns.	
Hesse	Hesse Cassel	Landgr.	N	Pr. of Hesse	Cassel	
	Hesse Marburg	Landgr.	N	Own prince	Marburg	
	Hesse Darmstadt	Landgr.	S	Own prince	Darmstadt	
	Hesse Homberg	Princip.		Own prince	Homberg	
	Hesse Rhinefield	Princip.		Own prince	Rhinefield	
Wetterau	Hesse Wanfried	Princip.		Own prince	Wanfried	
	Nassau	Dillenburg	County	S	Own count	Dillenburg
		Diets	County	S	Own count	Diets
		Hadamar	County	S	Own count	Hadamar
		Kerburg	County	S	Own count	Kerburg
		Siegen	County	N	Own count	Siegen
		Idstein	County	S	Own count	Idstein
		Weilburg	County	S	Own count	Weilburg
		Wishaden	County	S	Own count	Wishaden
		Bielstein	County	S	Own count	Bielstein
		Otweiler	County	S	Own count	Otweiler
		Ufingen	County	S	Own count	Ufingen
Francfort		Territ.	S	Sov. state	Francfort, Im.	
	Erpach	County	E	Own count	Erpach	
	Spire	Bishopr.		Sov. state	Spire, Imp.	
	Deuxpoints	Duchy		Own duke	Deuxpoints	
	Catzenelbogen	County		Hesse Cassel	Catzenelbogen	
	Waldec	County		Own count	Waldec	
	Solms	County		Own count	Solms	
	Hanau	County		Hesse Cassel	Hanau	
	Eysenberg	County		Own count	Eysenberg	
	Sayn	County		Own count	Sayn	
	Wied	County		Own count	Wied	
	Wetgenstein	County		Own count	Wetgenstein	
	Hatzfield	County		Own count	Hatzfield	
	Westerberg	County		Own count	Westerberg	
	Fuld	Abby	S E	Own abbot	Fuld	
	Hirschfield	County		Hesse Cassel	Hirschfield	

V. LOWER RHINE CIRCLE.

Division.	Subdivisions.	Title.	Pos.	Subject to	Chief towns.
Palatinate		Of the Rhine		El. Palatin.	Heidelberg
					Philipsburg
					Manheim
					Frankendal
	Cologne	Electr.		Own elector	Cologne, Bonn.
	Mentz	Electr.		Own elector	Mentz
					Aschaffenburg
	Triers	Electr.		Own elector	Triers
	Worms	Bishopr.		Sov. state	Worms
	Simmeren	Duchy		Own duke	Simmeren
	Rhinegravelstein	County		Own count	Rhinegravelstein
	Meurs	County		Prussia	Meurs
	Veldents	County		El. Palatin.	Veldents
	Spanheim	County		El. Palatin.	Creutznach
	Leymingen	County		El. Palatin.	Leymingen

VI. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subd.	Title.	Pofi.	Subject to	Chief towns.
Wurtzburg		Bishopr.	W	Own Bishop	Wurtzburg
Bemberg		Bishopr.	N	Own Bishop	Bemberg
Aichstat		Bishopr.	S	Own Bishop	Aichstat
Cullenbach		Marquif.	N E	Own Margr.	Cullenbach
Onspach		Marquif.	S	Own Margr.	Onspach
Henneburg		Princip.	N		Henneburg
Coberg		Duchy	N	Own Duke	Coberg
Hildburghaufen		Duchy		Own Duke	Hildburghaufen
Burgravate of Nuremburg, S. E. an independent State,					Nuremburg, an Imperial city,
Territory of the Great Master of the Teutonic Order, Mergentheim, S. W.					Mergentheim
Division.	Subd.	Title.	Pofi.	Subject to	Chief towns.
Reineck		County	W		Reineck
Bareith		County	E	Own Margr.	Bareith
Papenheim		County	S	Own Count	Papenheim
Wertheim		County	W		Wertheim
Caffel		County	Mid.		Caffel
Schwartzenburg		County		Own Count	Schwartzenburg
Holach		County	S W		Holach

VII. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.

The whole Circle belongs to the Empreſs-Queen of Hungary.

Divisions.	Sudivisions.	Chief towns.
Archduchy of Austria		Vienna, Lints, and Ens
Duchies of	{ Stiria and Cilley Corinthia Carniola	Gratz, Cilley Glagenfort, Lavemund, Lauback, Zerknits, Tri- este, St Veits
County of Tyrol	Goritia	Gorits
Bishopricks of	{ Brixen Trent	Inspruck } On the confines Brixen } of Italy and Trent } Switzerland.

VIII. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

Sudivisions.	Title.	Subject to	Chief towns.
Bavaria on the Danube	Duchy	Elec. of Bavaria	Munich Landshut Ingoldſtat Donawert, Imp.
Bavaria	Palatinate	Elec. of Bavaria	Amberg
Freiſſingen		Own Bishop	Freiſſingen
Paſſau	Bishoprick	Own Bishop	Paſſau
Neuberg	Duchy	Electoꝛ Palatin.	Neuberg
Saltsburgh	Archbishoprick	Own Archbiſhop	Saltsburgh

IX. S U A.

IX. SUABIA CIRCLE.

Subdivisions.	Title.	Subject to	Chief towns.
Wurtemberg	Duchy	Duke of Wurtemberg	Stuttgart Tubingen Hailbron
Baden Baden	Marquifate	Own Margrave	Baden Dourlach
Baden Dourlach	Marquifate	Own Margrave	Baden Weiler Augsburgh, Im.
Augsburgh	Bifhoprick	Own Bifhop	Hokftet Blenheim
Ulm	Territory	Sovereign ftate	Ulm Imp.
Conftance	Bifhoprick	Own Bifhop	Conftance
Mindelheim	Principality	Own Prince	Mindelheim
Furftenburg	Principality	Own Prince	Furftenburg
Hoenzollern	Principality	Own Prince	Hoenzollern
Oeting	County		Oeting
Koningfeck	County		Koningfeck
Hohenrichburg	County		Gemund
Waldburg	Barony		Waldburg
Limpurg	Barony		Limpurg
Kempton	Abby		Kempton, Imp.
Buchaw	Abby		Buchaw, Imp.
Lindaw	Abby		Lindaw, Imp.

Imperial cities, or fovereign ftates.

Subject to the houfe of Au- ftria.	{ Black Forest, North-Weft, Rhine- field, C.		Rhinefeld, and Lauffenburg
	{ Marquifate of Burgaw		Burgaw
	{ Territory of Bruggow, on the Rhine.		Friburg, and Brifac.

Name.] Great part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, and the word Germany is of itfelf but modern. The moft probable derivation is from *Ger*, or *Gar*, and *Man*; which, in the ancient Celtic, fignifies a warlike man. The Germans, however, went by various other names, fuch as Allemanni, Tudefcos, from their ancient god Tuifco, or from their firft founder Thuifcon; which laft is the moft ancient designation. The vulgar people of Germany, at this very day, are unacquainted with the word German, for they call themfelves Teutfchers, and their country Teuchland.

Mountains.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and thofe which feparate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. Great part of Germany, however, may be called a fpacious plain, interfperfed here and there with agreeable hills, which only tend to heighten the beauty of the fcene.

Rivers.] The Danube, or Donau, is fo called from the fwiftness and force of the current, and by the ancients fometimes Ifther, riles

in the black forest, in the South-West part of Suabia, runs North-East, through Suabia and Bavaria, to Ratisbon, then almost due East to Vienna; and then, dividing Hungary in two parts, runs South-East to Belgrade in Servia, and from thence running East, through Turkey, falls into the Euxine or Black Sea by several channels; being so wide and deep from Vienna to Belgrade, that fleets of men of war have engaged upon it in the late wars between the Christians and the Turks.

The rivers which fall into the Danube on the South side are the Iller, or Iser, which joins it at Ulm; the Leech, which passes by Augsbürg, and falls into the Danube, near Donawert; another Isar, which passes by Munich and Landshut, falls into it opposite to Deckendorf; the Inn, which rises in Switzerland, passes by Inspruck, and falls into the Danube at Passaw; the Ens, which falls into it at the town of Ens; the Drave, a large navigable river, which falls into the Danube at Esseck; the Saave, which falls into it at Belgrade; and the Moravia, which runs from South to North through Servia, and falls into the Danube at Semendria.

The rivers which fall into the Danube on the North are the Regen, which joins it at Ratisbon; the Nab, which runs from North to South, thro' the Palatinate of Bavaria, and falls into the Danube also near Ratisbon; the Theyesse, which, rising in the North of Hungary, falls into the Danube opposite to Salankamen; the Atlanta, which, in part, divides Christendom from Turkey on the East, and falls into the Danube between Widin and Nicopolis; the Pruth, which rises in the North of Moldavia, and, running South, falls into the Danube on the East of Bargarja. There are several cataracts in the Danube, and some unpassable in its run through Turkey, which interrupt the navigation to the Black Sea. The Danube runs a course of above 1600 miles, comprehending all its windings.

The Rhine rises in the Grison country, and runs North to the lake of Constance, then West to Basil, afterwards North, between Suabia and Alsace, then through the Palatinate and Elefectorate of Cologne, and, entering the Netherlands, is divided into several branches, as related already in the description of the Netherlands.

The rivers which fall into the Rhine, are the Neckar, which runs from South to North thro' Suabia, and falls into the Rhine at Manheim in the Palatinate; the Maine, which runs from East to West, and falls into the Rhine at Mentz; the Lhon, which runs from East to West, and falls into the Rhine below Nassau; the Roer, which runs from East to West thro' Westphalia, and falls into the Rhine at Duyzburg; the Lippe, which runs parallel to the Roer, and falls into the Rhine at Wesel.

The Elbe, which rises in the confines of Silesia, runs North-West through Bohemia, Saxony, and Brandenburg, and then dividing the king of Great Britain's German dominions from Holstein, falls into the German sea about seventy miles below Hamburg, receiving in its passage the Muldaw, which falls into it below Prague; the Sala, which falls into it below Dessau; the Havel, which falls into the Elbe at Havelsburg; and the Elmenau, which falls into it above Harburgh.

The Spree, which runs from South to North through Saxony and Brandenburg, passing by Berlin, falls into the Havel near Potsdam.

The

The Oder runs from South to North through Silesia and Brandenburg, and then, passing by Stetin, divides Eastern from Western Pomerania, and falls into the Baltic between the islands of Usedom and Wollin.

The Pene runs from West to East, dividing Swedish from Prussian Pomerania, and falls into the Baltic opposite to Usedom.

The Weser, rising in Hesse, runs North, receiving the Aller at Ferdin; then passing by Bremen, falls into the German sea below Carlstat.

The Ems rises near Munster, and, running North thro' Westphalia, falls into the German sea below Embden.

The Moselle, rising in Lorrain, runs North-East by Trevis, falling into the Rhine at Coblents. The Maes, which rises likewise in Lorrain, runs also North-East by Namur, Leige, &c. and joins with a branch of the Rhine below Nimeguen, after receiving the Roer at Roermonde.

The Saar, rising in Lorrain, runs North-West, and falls into the Moselle at Triers.

There are in Germany, besides the lakes of Constance, in Suabia, Bregentz, Chiemsce, in Bavaria, Zirknitzersee, in Carniola, several large collections of stagnant waters, which render their neighbourhoods unhealthy.

Climate, Soil, and Seasons.] The climate of Germany differs greatly, not only on account of the situation, North, East, South, and West, but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a vast effect upon the climate. The most mild and settled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal distance from the sea and the Alps. In the North it is sharp; towards the South it is more temperate.

The soil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture, and therefore in many places it is bare and sterile, tho' in others it is surprisingly fruitful. Agriculture has of late years made an extraordinary progress, which must necessarily change the most barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The seasons vary as much as the soil. In the South and Western parts they are more regular than those that lye near the sea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The North winds and the Eastern blasts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the seasons of Germany and those of Great Britain.

Forests.] The vast passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild-boar, is the reason why perhaps there are more woods and chases yet standing in Germany than in most other countries. The Hercynian forest, which in Cæsar's time was nine days journey in length, and six in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Most of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a great number of forests of less note in every part of this country; almost every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chase or park adorned with pleasure-houses, and well stocked with game, viz. deer, of which there are seven or eight sorts, as roe-bucks, hags, &c. of all sizes and colours, and many of a vast growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, bears, wolves,

wolves, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have them and venison for their ordinary food.

Mineral waters and Baths.] Germany is said to contain more of those than all Europe besides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters, and those of Pyrmont. Those of Aix-la-Chapelle are still more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath; and the springs of both are so hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they use them. The baths and medicinal waters of Ems, Wilsbaden, Schwalbach, Wildungen, and Brakel, perform wonders in many diseases. The mineral springs at the last mentioned place are said to intoxicate as soon as wine, and therefore they are inclosed. Carlsbad and Baden baths have been described and recommended by many great physicians, and used with great success by many royal personages.

Metals, Minerals, Vegetables, and Animals.] Bohemia, and many places in the circle of Austria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, salt-mines, and salt-pits are found in Austria, Bavaria, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, sapphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearls, turquois stones, and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege, are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red-lead allum, and bitumen; besides other fossils. In several places are dug up stones, which to a strong fancy represent different animals, and sometimes trees. Many of the German circles furnish coal-pits, and the *terra sigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, superstitiously thought to be an antidote against poison.

The country in general yields great plenty of wheat, huck-wheat, rye, spelt, barley, oats, peas, beans, vetches, and all kinds, of vegetables, fruits, and fish.

The Rhenish and Moselle wines differ from those of other countries in a peculiar lightness and detersive qualities, more sovereign in some diseases than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs. Their flesh, and the hams made of it, are preferred by many, even to those of Westmoreland, for flavour and grain. The glutton of Germany is said to be the most voracious of all animals. Its prey is almost every thing that has life, which it can master, especially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they surprise and devour greedily. On these the glutton feeds so ravenously, that it falls into a kind of torpid state, and not being able to move, he is killed by the huntsman; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horse; but their oxen and sheep are not comparable to those of England, probably owing to the want of skill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of singing

ing birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe. Game is found every where in abundance.

Manufactures.] The Germans are allowed to be excellent mechanics and chymists. The art of printing is said to be an invention of theirs, but the Dutch dispute this point with them; however, it was practised in both countries much about the same time, viz. in 1450, at Mentz, by John Faust. Gun-powder, and the use of guns, has been supposed to be the invention of Barthold Schwartz, a Franciscan Friar, about the year 1330. But there are very good reasons for saying that it is an invention of a much older date; its composition was described by Friar Bacon before the time of Schwartz: many think it was borrowed from the Chinese, and some think it was used in the East as far back as the time of Alexander the Great.

Their artificers at Nuremburg, and some other cities, are said to excel all Europe in their manufactures of steel, iron, brass, wood, alabaster, &c. selling their goods extremely cheap; and no place is more famous for clock-work, guns, and locks of all kinds. The making tin-plates, or white-iron, was peculiar to the Germans; but these plates are now tinned and manufactured in Great Britain, particularly in Wales. They have also great plantations of flax and hemp, and make a great deal of linen, which the English, as well as other nations, take off their hands. They have good iron and copper mines, and some of silver, and a variety of other mineral productions, particularly quicksilver.

The revocation of the edict of Nantz, by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French Protestants to settle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite service to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, silks, stuffs of all kinds, fine and coarse; linen and thread, and every thing necessary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meissen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world.

Traffic.] Their exportation consists chiefly of linen, skins, iron, brass, and toys; these are sent abroad by the Rhine, the Elbe, the Weser, and other rivers. They export also great quantities of Rhenish wine, bacon, beer, and mum: and we have an act for permitting the importation of timber from Germany. The French receive a great number of horses from Germany, to re-mount their cavalry. In lieu of their exports, they receive the produce and manufactures of other nations; particularly they receive from England our woollen manufactures, tobacco, sugar, ginger, East-India goods, tin, and lead: but several sorts of our woollen manufactures have been prohibited by some of the German princes, and others have prohibited all of them; which makes the balance of trade with Germany to be against us 500,000*l.* annually, according to Gee: but there are others of different opinions.

The Asiatic company of Embden, established by his present Prussian Majesty, was, exclusive of the Hanseatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but no ships have been sent out since the year 1760. The heavy taxes that his majesty laid on the company has been the cause of its total annihilation. In the great ci-
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ties of Germany very large and extensive partnerships in trade subsist.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, Diversions, and Dress.] As the empire of Germany is a collection of separate States, each having a different government and police, we can say little with precision as to the number of its inhabitants; but if they are fixed at twenty millions, the number is perhaps not exaggerated. When the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population must naturally increase among them.

The Germans in their persons are tall, fair, and strong built. The Ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, are remarkable for their beauty.

Both men and women affect rich dresses, which in fashion are the same as in France and England; but the better sort of men are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially if they are in the army. The Ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, only they are not so excessively fond of paint as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs, and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers families, in many of the German towns, dress in a very different manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic, as may be seen in many prints published in books of travels; but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dress from what they did half a century ago; as to the peasantry and labourers, they dress as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and opulence. In Westphalia, and most other parts of Germany, they sleep between two feather-beds, or rather the upper one of down, with sheets stitched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes; who squeeze them to keep up their own grandeur: but in general the circumstances of the common people are far preferable to those of the French.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and shew. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, especially the Italians, such as Montecuculi and Prince Eugene, they have done great things both against the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have seldom made any remarkable figure against either of those two nations, or against the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two last wars the Austrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not visible, especially in watch and clock-making, jewellery, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, some of which

we shall have occasion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly, owing to the vast plenty of their country in wine and provisions of every kind. But those practices seem now to be wearing out. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repast is commonly finished by coffee, after three or four public toasts have been drank. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than of any other nation.

The merchants and tradesmen are very civil and obliging. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. This perhaps is one of the reasons why the German husbands are not quite so complaisant as they ought otherwise to be to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are said to be somewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premised, it may easily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high-sounding title, easily enter into their armies, and those of other sovereigns. Their fondness for title is attended with many other inconveniencies. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it may treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a species of beings superior to labourers of every kind, they would demean themselves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In Summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field-diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear-baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in Winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the Ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tygers, swans, scollop-shells, &c. Here the Lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with lace and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers, ribbons, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night-time, servants ride before the sledge with torches, and a gentleman sitting on the sledge behind guides the horse.

Religion.] Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German bishops were possessed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the Emperors as well as the people. The Bohemians were the first who had an idea of reformation, and made so glorious a stand for many years against the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the
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liberty of taking the sacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romish church. This was in a great measure owing to Wickliff, an Englishman, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himself. Wickliff was seconded by John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithstanding the Emperor's safe conduct, were infamously burnt at the council of Constance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther *, of which we have spoke in the introduction, though it struck at the chief abuses in the church of Rome, was thought in some points (particularly that of consubstantiation, by which the real body of Christ as well as the elements of bread and wine, is supposed to be taken in the sacrament) to be imperfect. Calvinism †, therefore, was introduced into Germany, and is now the religion of Prussia, Hesse, and some other parts. According to some, the number of Protestants and Papists in the empire are now almost equal. Germany, particularly Bohemia, Moravia, and the Palatinate, is over-run with sectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At present, the modes of worship and forms of church-government are by the Protestant German princes considered in a civil rather than a religious light. The Protestant clergy are learned and exemplary in their deportment, but the Popish ignorant and libertine.

Archbishopsees and Bishopsees.] There are six archbishopricks in Germany, which are differently represented by authors, some of whom represent Vienna as being a suffragan to the archbishopsee of Saltzburg; and others as being an archbishoprick, but depending immediately upon the Pope. The others are the archbishop of Mentz, who has under him twelve suffragans, but one of them, the bishop of Bamberg, is said to be exempted from his jurisdiction;—Triers has three suffragans;—Cologne has four;—Magdeburg has five;—Saltzburg has nine, besides Vienna;—and Bremen three.

At different periods, since the reformation, it has been found expedient, to satisfy the claims of temporal princes, to secularize the following bishopsees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburgh, Halberstadt, Minden, Osnaburg, (which goes alternately to the houses of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at present held by his Britannic Majesty's second son) and Lubec. Such of those Sees as were Archbishopsricks are now considered as Duchies, and the Bishopricks as Principalities.

Language.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High-Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies so much

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to dispute the doctrines of the Romish church 1517, and died 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the North of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he settled at Geneva in 1536, where he established a new form of church-discipline, which was soon after embraced by several nations and states, who are now denominated Calvinists, or Presbyterians. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

much in its dialect, that the people of one province scarcely understand those of another. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High-Dutch.

The German Pater-Noster is as follows: *Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel. Geheiligt werde dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geschehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser taglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unser schuld, als wir vergeben unsern schuldigern. Und fahre uns nicht in versuchung. Sondern erlese uns von dem bosen. Den dein is das reich, und die crafft, und die herrlichkeit, in ewigkeit. Amen.*

Learning, learned Men, and Universities.] No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taste for reading, especially in the Protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number, thousands of theses and disputations are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in their universities, who has not published one disputation at least. In this country there are thirty-six universities, of which seventeen are Protestant, seventeen Roman Catholic, and two mixed; besides a vast number of colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin schools. There are also many academies and societies for the promoting the study of natural philosophy, the Belles Lettres, antiquities, painting, sculpture, architecture, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *natura curiosi*; the academy of sciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Göttingen, at Erfurth, at Leipzig, at Duisburgh, at Bremen, at Gießen, and at Hamburg. At Dresden and Nuremberg are academies for painting, at Berlin a royal military academy, and at Augsburg is the imperial Franciscan academy of fine arts, to which we may add the Latin society at Gena. Of the public libraries the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbüttel, Hanover, Göttingen, Weimar, and the council library at Leipzig. The Germans have written largely upon the Roman and Canon laws; Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, and Hoffmann, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius of botany; Heister of anatomy and surgery; Newman, Zewermann, Pott, and Margraff, of chymistry. In philosophy, natural and moral, the reputation of Leibnitz, Wolfius, Puffendorf, Thomassius, Otto Van Guericke, and Kepler, is great. Every prince, baron, and gentleman in Germany is a chymist or natural philosopher. Germany has also produced good political writers, geographers, and historians, of whom Büsching is the most voluminous; but they seem to have no great taste or capacity for works of wit and entertainment, as poetry, plays, romances, and novels, or what is called the Belles Lettres; but they have had some good critics and antiquarians. They have one great defect, in all their writings, namely, that they are extremely prolix, dry, voluminous, and mechanical, and know little or nothing of that valuable art in which some nations excel, namely, of enlivening their performances, and mixing the pleasant with the useful. Some writers, however, of the present age, as Klopstock, Rabner, Gellert, Kleist, Gesner, Gleim, Gottsched, and Hagadorn are exceptions from these remarks. With respect to the

fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themselves tolerably well. Germany has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the first inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Germany has likewise produced some excellent musicians; Handel, Bach, and Haffé, of whom Handel stands at the head; and it is acknowledged, that he arrived at the sublime of music, but he had not the smallest idea of the connection between music and sentimental expression.

*Cities, Towns, Forts, and other edifices, } This is a copious head
public and private; with occasional } in all countries, but more
estimates of Revenues and Population. } particularly so in Germany,
on account of the numerous independent states it contains. The
reader therefore must be contented with the mention of the most capital
places and their peculiarities.*

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Prussian Majesty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the most illustrious example of sudden improvement that this age can boast of; yet, during the late war, it was found a place of no strength, and fell twice, almost without resistance, into the hands of the Austrians, who, had it not been for the politeness of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preserves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, besides a royal palace, has many other superb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calvinist churches, besides a Popish one. Its streets and squares are spacious; its manufactures of all kinds are numerous, and well provided: it abounds with theatres, schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Busching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garrison. In the same year, and according to the same author, there were no fewer than, 443 silk-loom, 149 of half-silks, 2858 looms for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is by nature the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe: it contains 210 walled towns, sixty-one market towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves, (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief,) and the revenue, estimating each rix-dollar at four shillings and six-pence, amounts to 1,350,000*l*. This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil, which, if we are to believe Dr Busching, produces even diamonds, and almost all the precious stones to be found in the East-Indies and elsewhere, and the variety of splendid manufactures, that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the most moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can say little more than has been already said of all fine cities, of Dresden, the Elector of Saxony's capital; that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations, and, above all, its suburbs, are magnificent beyond all expression; that it is beautifully situated on both sides the Elbe; and that it is the school

school of Germany, for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dresden, by the latest accounts, amount to 110,000. The famous porcelain manufactory is carried on at Meissen upon the Elbe, about sixteen miles from Dresden.

The city of HANOVER, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, but is of no great consideration. It contains about 2500 houses, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lyes the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhausen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about 750,000 people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and sixty market towns, besides villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, part of which belonging by purchase to the said elector, contains about 50,000 inhabitants, and has a considerable trade by the Weser. The other towns belonging to the said electorate have trade and manufactures; but, in general, it must be remarked, that the electorate has suffered greatly by the accession of the Hanover family to the crown of Great Britain. We shall here just mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the secularized bishoprick of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Weser and Ems. The chief city, Osnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the Duchy, and for the manufacture of the best Westphalia hams. The whole revenue of the bishoprick amounts to about 30,000*l*.

BRESLAW, the capital of Silesia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lyes on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all sects of Christians and Jews are tolerated, but the magistracy is Lutheran. Since Silesia fell under the Prussian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, tho' very inconsiderable before. The manufactures of Silesia, which principally center at Breslau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by some said to bring his Prussian Majesty in near a million sterling; but this sum seems to be exaggerated, for authors of good note affirm that it never brought into the house of Austria above 500,000*l*. yearly.

VIENNA is the capital of the circle of Austria, and being the residence of the emperor, is supposed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a strong city, and the princes of the house of Austria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. The two Austrias, and the hereditary dominions of that house, are by nature so well furnished with all materials for the luxuries, the conveniencies, and the necessities of life, that foreign importations into this city are almost totally prohibited. Vienna contains an excellent university, a bank, which is in the management of her own magistrates, and a court of commerce immediately subject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a sixth part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the city. It would be endless to enumerate the many palaces, two of which are imperial, of this capital; its squares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. Among its rich convents is one for the Scots nation, built in honour of their countryman St Colman, the

patron of Austria; and one of the six gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of some notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants, if we are to believe Dr Busching, are between 180,000 and 200,000; and the encouragement given them by their sovereigns, has rendered Vienna the rendezvous of all the nations round.

After all that has been said of this magnificent city, the most candid and sensible of those who have visited it are far from being lavish in its praise. The streets, excepting some in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty; the houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public buildings; but, above all, the excessive imposts laid by the house of Austria upon every commodity in his dominions, must always keep the manufacturing part of their subjects poor. His present imperial majesty seems to be sensible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predecessors and their counsellors: he examines things with his own eyes, and has descended from that haughtiness of demeanour which rendered the imperial court so long disagreeable, and indeed ridiculous, to the rest of Europe. In general, the condition of the Austrian subjects has been greatly meliorated since his accession to the imperial throne; but in this he acts agreeably to the sentiments of his mother, who is the immediate possessor of those vast dominions.

Constitution and Government.] Almost every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them,) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own estate, but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the Emperor, and whose power in the collective body or the diet, is not directorial but executive, and even that gives him vast influence. The supreme power in Germany is in the diet, which is composed of the Emperor, or, in his absence, of his Commissary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The first of these is the electoral college; the second is the college of princes; and the third the college of imperial towns.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for some centuries belonged to the house of Austria, as being the most powerful of the German princes; but by French management, upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather, by the mother's side, to the present emperor, the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as is supposed, of heart-break, after a short uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he signs at his election; and the person, who in his life-time is chosen king of the Romans, succeeds without a new election to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchisements upon cities and towns, but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the consent of the diet. When that consent is obtained, every prince must contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may espouse a different side from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German constitution, for George II. of England was obliged to furnish his quota against the house of Austria and the king of Prussia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedence for his ambassadors in all Christian courts.

The

The electors of the empire are nine in number. Each has a particular office in the imperial court, and they have the sole election of the emperor. They are in order,

The archbishop of Mentz, who is high-chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

The archbishop of Treves, who is high-chancellor of the empire in France.

The archbishop of Cologne, who is the same in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand sewer, or officer who serves out the feasts.

The elector of Saxony, who is grand marshal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia) who is great chamberlain.

The elector of Palatine, who is great steward; and

The elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain) who claims the part of arch-treasurer.

It is necessary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of those members; and, during the vacancy of the imperial throne, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdiction, the former over the North, and the latter over the Southern circles.

The ecclesiastical princes are as absolute as the temporal ones in their several dominions. The chief of these, besides the three ecclesiastical electors already mentioned, are the archbishop of Saltzburg, the bishops of Liege, Muhlster, Spire, Worms, Wirtzburg, Strasburg, Osnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Besides these are many other ecclesiastical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeesses, whose jurisdictions are likewise absolute; and some of them very considerable, and all of them are chosen by their several chapters. The chief of the secular princes are the Landgrave of Hesse, the dukes of Brunswick, Wolfenbuttle, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquisses of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Nassau, Anhalt, Frustenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are sovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewise sovereign states; those which are imperial, or compose a part of the diet, bear the imperial eagle in their arms; those which are Hanse-towns, of which we have spoken in the introduction, have still great privileges and immunities, but they subsist no longer as a political body.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the *Aulic-council*, are the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members. The imperial council consists of fifty judges or assessors. The president and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chooses one; and the other princes and states the rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlaar, but formerly it resided at Spire; and causes may be brought before it by appeal. The aulic-council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the house of Austria. As that family's power increased, the jurisdiction of the aulic-council was extended; and at last, to the great disgust of the princes of the empire, it usurped upon the powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It consists of a president,

dent, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, a certain number of auditors, counsellors, of whom six are Protestants, besides other officers, but the emperor in fact is master of the court.

These courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law.

Besides these courts of justice, each of the nine circles we have already mentioned has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle.

After, upon any great emergency, the votes of the diet are collected, and sentence pronounced, the emperor by his prerogative commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princess, whose troops live at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences; upon the whole, the constitution of the Germanic body is of itself a study of no small difficulty. But however plausibly invented the several checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the house of Austria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been saved by France. Lately indeed the house of Austria has met with a powerful opposition from the house of Brandenburg, in consequence of the abilities and activity of the present king of Prussia. Before we close this head, it may be necessary to give the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German history, viz. the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a provision made by the emperor Charles VI. for preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next descendant of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision has been often disputed by other branches of the house of Austria, who have been occasionally supported by France from political views, tho' the pragmatic sanction is strongly guarantied by almost all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, as being descended from the daughters of the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewise been again and again opposed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are so large, as to be assigned to viceroys, to be oppressed and fleeced at pleasure; nor are they without redress when they suffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. Whereas in France, the lives and fortunes of the subject are entirely at the disposal of the grand monarch. The subjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the most unhappy; for these princes, affecting the grandeur and splendour of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domestics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curiosities, guards, bands of music, tables, dress, and furniture, are obliged to support all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vassals and dependents. With respect to the burghers and peasants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter also, in some parts, for instance, in Franconia, Suabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain services to their superiors, and only pay taxes; whereas in the marquisate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Lusatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Austria, &c. they may justly be denominated slaves, though in different degrees.

Revenues.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who as such has an annual income of about five or 6000*l.* sterling, arising from some inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest. The Austrian revenues are immense, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000 sterling in Germany and Italy, a sum that goes far in those countries. The late king of Prussia, whose revenues were not near so extensive as those of his present majesty, though he maintained a large army, was so good an economist that he left 7,000,000 sterling in his coffers; and some have thought that Silesia alone brings half a million sterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a stranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes, which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and consequently the low price of provisions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that some princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot speak with any tolerable precision on a subject of such variety and uncertainty, and which comprehends so many independent states.

Military Strength.] During the two last wars very little regard was paid, in carrying them on, to the ancient German constitutions, the whole management being engrossed by the head of the house of Austria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation-book or register, which among other letters contains the assessments of men and money, which every prince and state, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly assessments paid to the emperors when they visited Rome. Those assessments however are subject to great mutability. It is sufficient here to say, that upon a moderate computation the secular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the ecclesiastical 74,500, in all 453,500; of those the emperor, as head of the house of Austria, is supposed to furnish 90,000.

	<i>Men.</i>
The elector of Mentz may maintain	6000
The elector of Trier	6000
The elector of Cologne	6000
The bishop of Munster	8000
The bishop of Liege	8000
The archbishop of Saltzburg	8000
The bishop of Wurtzburg	2000
The bishop of Bamberg	3000
The bishop of Paderborn	3000
The bishop of Osnaburg	2500
The abbot of Fulda	6000
The other bishopricks of the empire	6000
The abbies and provostships of the empire	8000
Total of the Ecclesiastical Princes	74,500
The emperor, for Hungary	30,000
For Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia	30,000
For Austria, and other dominions	30,000
The king of Prussia	40,000

The

The elector of Saxony	25,000
The elector Palatine	15,000
The duke of Wirtemburgh	15,000
The landgrave of Hesse Cassel	15,000
The prince of Baden	10,000
The elector of Hanover	30,000
The duke of Holstein	12,000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15,000
The prince of Anhalt	6000
The prince of Lawenburgh	6000
The elector of Bavaria	30,000
The dukes of Saxony	10,000
The prince of Nassau	10,000
The other princes and imperial towns	50,000
The secular princes	379,000
The ecclesiastical princes	74,500
Total,	453,500

Antiquities and Curiosities. } We have, in describing the mineral
Natural and Artificial. } and other springs, anticipated great
part of this article, which is of itself very copious. Every court of
Germany produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural,
ancient and modern. The town at Heidelberg holds 800 hogheads,
and is generally full of the best Rhenish wine, from which stran-
gers are seldom suffered to retire sober. Vienna itself is a curio-
sity; for here you see the greatest variety of inhabitants that is to
be met with any where, as Greeks, Transylvanians, Sclavonians,
Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards,
French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library
at Vienna is a great literary rarity on account of its sancient manu-
scripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are
many valuable manuscripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Ar-
menian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of them is
questionable, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to have
been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are
likewise many thousand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and me-
dals; with a vast collection of other curiosities in art and nature.
The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and above all, town-
houses, in Germany, are very curious: they strike the beholder with
an idea of rude magnificence; and sometimes they have an effect that
is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houses in great
cities and villages have the same appearance, probably, as they had
400 years ago; and their fortifications generally consist of a brick-
wall, trenches filled with water, and bastions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief
natural curiosities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave near
Blackenburg, in Hartz-forest, of which none have yet found the
end, though many have advanced into it for twenty miles; but the
most remarkable curiosity of that kind is near Hammelen, about thirty
miles from Hanover, where at the mouth of a cave stands a monu-
ment

ment which commemorates the loss of 130 children, who were there swallowed up in 1284. Though this fact is very strongly attested, it has been disputed by some critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly representing two monks in their proper habits; and of many stones which seem to be petrifications of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

Imperial, Royal, and other } The emperor of Germany pretends to
Titles, Arms, and Orders. } be successor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occasions among the powers of Europe. Austria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that house, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is vested as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering, with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is seen the imperial crown. It would be equally useless as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of instituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admissible unless confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as descended from the house of Burgundy. The Empress Dowager Eleonora, in 1662, founded two orders of ladies, who are a sort of knights: the first is called the Order of the Slaves of Virtue, because they profess a more severe virtue than others: they are thirty in number, part Protestants and part Papists. The second is that of the United Cross-Bearers, founded by the same empress in 1666; because, when the palace was burnt, a golden crucifix was found in the ruins untouched by the flames. They are all Papists; and the late empress-queen instituted the order of St Teresa.

GERMAN GOLD COINS.

l. s. d.

Ducat of the bishop of Bamberg	0	9	3
Double Ducat of Hanover	0	18	4
Ducat of Hanover	0	9	2
Ducat of Brandenburg	0	9	3
Double Ducats of several forms in Germany	0	18	4
Single Ducats	0	9	2

GERMAN SILVER COINS.

l. s. d.

Ducatoon of Cologne	0	5	5
Rix Dollar, or Patagon of Cologne	0	4	4
Rix Dollar, or Patagon of Leige	0	4	7
Rix Dollar of Mentz	0	4	7
Rix Dollar of Frankfort	0	4	6
Rix Dollar of the Palatinate	0	4	7
Rix Dollar of Nuremberg	0	4	7
Rix Dollar of Lunenberg	0	4	6

Old Rix Dollar of Hanover	0	5	7
Double Gulden of Hanover	0	4	8
The Gulden of Hanover	0	2	4
The half Gulden of Hanover	0	1	2
The Gulden of Zell	0	2	3
The Gulden of the Bishop of Heidelberg	0	2	6
The Gulden, or Guilder of Magdeburg	0	2	4
The Old Rix Dollar of Brandenburg	0	4	7
The Old Gulden, or Guilder of Brandenburg	0	2	6
The New Guilder of Brandenburg	0	2	3
The half Guilder of Brandenburg	0	1	1½
The Gulden of the Elector of Saxony	0	2	4
The Old Bank Dollar of Hamburg	0	4	6
The Rix Dollar of Lubec	0	4	6
Rix Dollar of the late Emperor Leopold	0	4	6
Rix Dollar of the Emperor Ferdinand III.	0	4	6
Rix Dollar of Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria	0	4	5

History.] The manners of the ancient Germans are described by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman historian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly distinguished by their love of liberty and arms. They opposed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and still continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occasionally connected by a military union for defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberty of them all. In this situation Germany remained, notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the rest into subjection, until the beginning of the ninth century: then it was that Charlemagne, one of those eccentric and superior geniuses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the year 886, at which time the different princes assumed their original independence, rejected the Carlovinian line, and placed Arnulph, King of Bohemia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, have mounted the throne. Of these the most considerable, until the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Suabia. The reigns of these emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former was attached to the popes, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their virulence and inveteracy, tended to disquiet the empire for several ages. The emperors too were often at war with the infidels; and sometimes the German princes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the succession.

But what more deserves the attention of a judicious reader than all those noisy but uninteresting disputes, is the progress of government

ment in Germany, which was in some measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raised by Charlemagne, fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed the right of election; and those now distinguished by the name of Electors had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne; they were only the officers of the king's household, his secretary, his steward, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse, &c. By degrees, however, as they lived near the king's person, and had, like all the other princes, independent territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor. Thus while in the other kingdoms of Europe the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the people's jurisdiction. In 1440, Frederick III. duke of Austria, was elected emperor; and the imperial dignity continued in the male-line of that family for three hundred years. His successor, Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles, duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the Seventeen Provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in several parts of Germany, which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes and French king, Francis I. Though successful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the conclusion of it, began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who in 1558 succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address to get his son Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that if either his own male issue, or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter, Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her issue. We mention this destination, as it gave rise to the late opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction, in favour of the empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed with internal commotions; and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. He was succeeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias at last, reconciled them but the Bohemians revolted, and

threw the imperial commissaries out of a window at Prague. This gave rise to a ruinous war, which lasted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties, but they formed a confederacy, called the Evangelic League, which was counterbalanced by a Catholic league.

Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin, Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederick the Elector Palatine, the most powerful Protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic Majesty James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he lost it, by being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals at the battle of Prague; and he himself was deprived of his electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The Protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with wonderful obstinacy; among them were the Margrave of Baden Durlach: Christian, duke of Brunswick, and count Mansfeld; the last was one of the best generals of the age. Christian IV. king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French minister, was not fond of seeing the house of Austria aggrandized. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian, having put himself at the head of the Evangelic League, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialist of great reputation in war. Ferdinand made so moderate a use of his advantages obtained over the Protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipzig, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. We shall defer the history of the amazing victories and progress of this great monarch till we come to treat of Sweden. He was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the Protestant cause did not die with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torstenson, Bancer, and others, who shook the Austrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munster, in the year 1648; which forms the basis of the present political system of Europe.

Ferdinand II. was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a severe, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one side, and the Turks on the other; and was a loser in his war with both. France took from him Alsace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary. The empire, however, could not have withstood the power of France, who pursued their conquests with such rapidity, that the other powers of Europe were alarmed, and a grand confederacy, consisting of the empire, Great Britain, the Dutch, under William Prince of Orange, and the Northern powers, was formed to check the progress of the French, and render abortive the ambitious plan contrived by Lewis XIV. for founding an universal monarchy. At last, however, a peace was concluded at Ryfwick, in

1697; and, two years after, the Turks consented to a peace, which was signed at Cartowitz in 1699. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died in 1705.

He was succeeded by his son Joseph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill served by prince Lewis of Baden, general of the empire, the French party recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain by his conduct, that he expected England should take the labouring oar in the war, which was to be entirely carried on for his benefit. The English were disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male-issue, he was succeeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at first made a show as if he would continue the war, but found himself unable, now that he was forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden in 1714, that he might attend the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from Prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the same general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialists; and next year the peace of Passarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leisure in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the house of Hanover, an event which gave him a very decisive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I. and II. in the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and carried matters with so high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I.; and so unsteady was the system of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandisement, was the main object of the British court; as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empress-queen, he having no male issue. Mutual concessions upon those great points restored a good understanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by the prospect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the great claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very bad success in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he
had

had no general of equal abilities to supply his place. The system of France, however, under Cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and she obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reason to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers easy, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, the late empress-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave, than all he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Prussia entered, and conquered with an irresistible army, Silesia, which he said had been wrongfully dismembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all those powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a considerable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia by formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and sufferings, and the noble fortitude with which she bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whose arms she threw herself and her little son; and though they had been always remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II, at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time miserable on the imperial throne, and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms, but she haughtily and impolitically rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic Majesty, her best, and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave a colour for the king of Prussia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity: but though he took Prague, and subdued the greatest part of the kingdom, he was not supported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conquests, and retired to Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that she might recover Silesia. Soon after, his imperial majesty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorrain, then grand duke of Tuscany, consort to the Hungary majesty, after surmounting some difficulties, was chosen emperor.

The bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empress-queen against his Prussian majesty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorrain, who had before driven the Prussians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empress-queen was such, that his Britannic majesty thought proper to guarantee to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Prussian majesty pretended that he had discovered a secret convention

convention which had been entered into between the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to strip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themselves. Upon this his Prussian majesty, very suddenly, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine, now great duke of Tuscany, for emperor. The war, however, continued in the Low Countries, not only to the disadvantage, but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen, and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles all former differences between these monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000*l.* to his Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war.

The flames of war now broke out in Germany with greater fury, and more destructive violence, than ever. The armies of his Prussian majesty, like an irresistible torrent, burst into Saxony, totally defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowositz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impregnably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this his Prussian majesty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into the empire. The conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is the most amazing that is to be met with in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with an inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of near 100,000 Austrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as was the brave marshal Schwerin on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a most tremendous artillery; but just as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Collin, by the Austrian general Daun, and obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eisenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. This defeat was far from intimidating the Prussian monarch; he soon after attacked the combined army of France and the empire, at Rossbach, and obtained a complete victory, seized their baggage, with 164 *p*ieces of canon. This victory was soon after followed by another, not less important; he attacked the grand Austrian army at Lissa, and totally defeated them; after this the Prussians took Breslaw, and obtained many other great advantages. The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aspect of the war; and the cautious, yet enterprising genius of count Daun, laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding all his amazing victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorf; but an attack made upon his army in the night time, by count Daun,

at Hockkirchen, had almost proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony, for the safety of Silesia; and it has been observed, that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did; six sieges were raised almost at the same time; that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipzig, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by Daun; those of Neiss, Cosel, and Torgau, by the Austrians.

Brevity obliges us to omit many capital scenes which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, tho' extremely burdensome and bloody to Great Britain. It falls more within our plan to mention the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty, and his allies and generals, who were threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken possession of all the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians, but he soon found them by far the most formidable enemies he had, as they were advancing, under count Solतिकoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair, but was, at last, totally defeated by the Russians, with the loss of 20,000 of his best troops in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were shut up. He had lost, since the first of October 1756, the great marshal Keith, and forty brave generals, besides those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landshut the imperial general, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austrians a ready gate into Silesia. None but his Prussian majesty would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he received seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not perhaps very easy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, unless by the jealousy which the imperial generals entertained of their Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialists in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the best fought action the king of Prussia had ever been engaged in, but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was attended with no great consequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, was on the point of completing his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died, January 5th, 1762; George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of those two illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III. sought to finish the war with honour, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His Prussian majesty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced

duced by his losses, that the empress-queen, probably, would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the wise backwardness of the other German princes, not to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the empress-queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible backwardness of her generals to execute her orders, and the new successes obtained by his Prussian majesty at last prevailed upon her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, which secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia. Upon the death of the emperor, her husband, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire.

The imperial court has formed several distinct sovereignties in the Austrian family out of their Italian dominions, and appear inclined to cultivate a pacific system, both in the empire and all over Europe. His imperial majesty, very soon after his accession, displayed great talents for government; and paid a visit *incognito*, and with a small retinue, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy, and had even a personal interview with the king of Prussia. This, however, did not prevent hostilities from being commenced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria; but their differences were happily accommodated without much bloodshed *.

B O H E M I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 300 }	between { 48 and 52 North latitude.
Breadth 250 }	{ 12 and 19 East longitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg on the North; by Poland and Hungary on the East; by Austria and Bavaria on the South; and by the Palatinate of Bavaria on the West; comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Silesia; and, 3. Moravia.

Divisions.	Chief towns.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. mostly subject to the Ho. of Austria. }	{ PRAGUE, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50. Königsgratz, E. Glatz, E. subject to the king of Prussia. Egra, W.
	2. Silesia,

* Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, &c. was born in 1717, and died on the 29th of November 1780. Her son, Joseph-Benedict-Augustus, was born in 1741, crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded his father as emperor in 1765, married, the same year, the princess Josephina-Maria of Bavaria, who died in 1767.

Divisions.	Chief towns.
2. Silesia, East, mostly subject to the king of Prussia.	Breslaw, E. lon. 16-50. N. lat. 51-15. Glogaw, N. Crossen, N. Jagendorf, S. Tropaw, S. subject to the house of Austria. Teschchen, S. subject to the house of Austria.
3. Moravia, S. entirely subject to the house of Austria.	Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40. Brin, middle. Iгла, S. W.

Mountains.] Bohemia, tho' it contains none of note, is surrounded by high mountains and woods, and every province divided from another, by a chain of mountains.

Rivers.] The principal rivers are, 1. The Elbe; 2. The Oder; and, 3. The Mulda, which generally run from S. to N. (their courses having been described already;) 4. The Eger, which runs from W. to E. and falls into the Elbe; 5. The Moraw, which runs from N. to S. thro' Moravia, and falls into the Danube; 6. The Iгла, and, 7. The Teya, which run from E. to W. and, uniting their waters, fall into the Moraw.

Soil and Air.] The air of this country is esteemed unhealthful, the woods and mountains which surround it not leaving a free passage to the air. Its soil and produce are pretty much the same as in other parts of Germany.

Mines and Manufactures.] No country in Europe has richer mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre. Its principal manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glass.

Constitution and Government.] The forms only of the old Bohemian constitution now subsist, but the government under the emperor is hereditary and despotic. The states of *Bohemia* indeed are summoned, for form sake, every year, by the command of the emperor, and meet at Prague; they consist of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns. Here a commissioner from the sovereign lays before them the necessity of granting such supplies as the court demands, which usually amount to a very great sum; and these are granted without hesitation or examination; only they sometimes express their concern at the absence of their prince, and seem grieved that their country is exhausted to enrich the Austrians, for whom they have an implacable aversion. This kingdom is often described as a part of Germany without any good reason; for it is not comprehended in any of the nine circles, neither does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to its laws. What occasions the mistake is, that their kings are the first secular electors of the empire, and have for many years been elected emperors of Germany.

Arms.] The arms of Bohemia are argent a lion gules, the tail moved, and passed in saltier, crowned langued, and armed, or.

Nobility.]

Nobility and Vassals.] There are the same degrees of nobility here as in Germany, but the farmers and husbandmen on their estates are vassals. Here is no middle state; every lord is a kind of sovereign, and their tenants little better than slaves, having no property in the lands they manure. Queen of Bohemia is one of the titles of the present empress.

Revenues.] Her revenues are raised by the states of the kingdom, who are assembled annually at Prague, to provide such sums as the empress demands of them, over and above the customs and duties she is entitled to by her prerogative.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] We have no certain account of the present population of Bohemia; about 150 years ago it was computed to contain 3,000,000 of inhabitants: they are thought at present not to be so numerous. The Bohemians in their persons, habits, and manners, resemble the Germans. The lower ranks are accused of being addicted to pilfering and superstition. But tho' the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid assertors of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witness the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was scarcely known in any other, the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit; tho', it is certain, their internal jealousies and dissensions greatly contributed to their subjection. Their customs and diversions are the same as in Germany.

Cities and Towns.] PRAGUE, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge, which is 1850 feet long, and thirty-four feet broad; it consists of sixteen arches, and is adorned on each side with twenty-eight statues of saints. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, never could completely invest it. For this reason, it is able to make a vigorous defence in case of a regular siege. The inhabitants, however, are thought not to be proportioned to its capaciousness, being thought not to exceed 70,000 Christians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains ninety-two churches and chapels, and forty cloisters. It is a place of little trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are said to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns some of which are fortified, but they are remarkable neither for strength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia; it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woolen, iron, glass, paper, and gun-powder.

Commerce and Manufactures.] See Germany.

Language.] The proper language is a dialect of the Slavonian, though they usually speak German and High Dutch. Their Paternoster is of the following tenour: *Otti nash, kterish, esi, v nyebf-*
G g 2 *ach;*

zech; ofuety fze imeno tvo; prfid feralouftui tvo; bude vult fva jako v'nebi tak i na zemi bleb nash vezdejfbi dei nam dnyefez; a od pufzty nam vini nafhe jakafh i mi odpus thyime vinyikum nashim; ne uody nofe o pukufhenyi alye zhavifhnafz ode zlebo; nebove jefut kralyofztvi i morez ifzlavana veki. Amen.

Religion.] The eftablifhed religion in two of the provinces, viz. of Bohemia Proper and Moravia, is ftill Popery; though there are a multitude of fefts that call themfelves Proteftants in Moravia; fome of whom entertain very fhocking notions of the Chriftian religion, and have lately made profelytes in Great Britain. They have a meeting-houfe in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a fettlement in the plantations.

Archbifhopricks and Bifhopricks.] The only archbifhoprick in Bohemia is that of Prague; and the bifhopricks are thofe of Koningsgratz, Breflau, and Olmutz.

Univerfity.] Prague is the only univerfity.

Coins.] The coins are the fame as in Germany; in the defcription whereof they are already enumerated.

History.] The Bohemians are faid to be defcended from the Boii, a people of Gaul, who retired thither when the Romans, under Julius Cæfar, made a conqueft of that country. They were for a confiderable time governed by dukes; Uldeffaus II. was the firft king of Bohemia, and afcended the throne anno 1086. The Bohemian nobility long elected their own prince, though the emperors of Germany fometimes impofed a king upon them, and at length ufurped that throne themfelves. Sigismund, king of Hungary, and afterwards emperor, was upon the throne of Bohemia when John Hufz and Jerome of Prague, two of the firft reformers, were burnt at the Council of Conftance, anno 1414, though the emperor had given them his protection.

This occafioned an infurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chambers, and the famous Zifca, afsembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in feveral engagements, and drove the imperialifts out of the kingdom. Nor was the emperor able to recover that kingdom from the Hufites till they were ruined by their own divifions; after which they underwent a fevere perfecution, and the emperor re-eftablifhed in his dominion.

In the year 1609, the Proteftants of Germany formed a confederacy, called The Union, or Evangelical League, of which they chofe Frederick IV. Elektor Palatine, their head, and with thefe the Proteftants of Bohemia joined. The emperor Matthias, in the year 1616, advanced his coufin Ferdinand to the throne of Bohemia, and caufed him to be crowned and recognized by the ftates of the kingdom; but he refiding at Gratz in Stiria, and fuffering the Proteftants to be oppreffed and persecuted by the Popifh clergy, they elected the Elektor Palatine head of the Proteftant league in Germany;

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many, their king. (This prince married the princess Elizabeth, daughter of James I. king of England, who was mother of the princess Sophia of Hanover.) This Prince Palatine being crowned king of Bohemia, the emperor's generals invaded and plundered the palatinate, while the Duke of Bavaria, with another army, followed the elector into Bohemia, and, in a battle near the walls of Prague, entirely defeated him; he was deprived of his electorate, and expelled all his dominions, whereupon he fled into Holland, and was forced to depend on the court of England for his subsistence; his family not being restored until the treaty of Westphalia, anno 1648, prince Rupert and prince Maurice, his sons, were generals in king Charles's army, during the civil wars in England. The emperors of Germany have had the dominion of Bohemia ever since.

H U N G A R Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 300 } between { 17 and 23 East longitude.
 Breadth 200 } { 45 and 49 North latitude.

Boundaries.] **T**HAT part of Hungary which belongs to the house of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, Temeswar, and other countries) is bounded by Poland on the North; by Transylvania and Walachia on the East; by Sclavonia on the South; and by Austria and Moravia on the West.

The general division of Hungary is into Upper, (by some called Proper,) and Lower Hungary; the former lying North, and the latter South of the Danube. Their chief towns being Presburg and Buda.

Air, Soil, and Produce.] The air, and consequently the climate of the Southern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marshes; the Northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is sweet and wholesome. No country in the world can boast a richer soil than that plain which extends 300 miles from Presburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chesnuts, and wood: corn is in such plenty, that it sells for one-sixth part of its price in England.

Rivers.]

Rivers.] These are the Danube, Drave, Teyffe, Merish, and the Temes.

Waters.] Hungary contains several lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains, of considerable extent, and abounding with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed the most sovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raised by the Turks when in possession of the country, particularly those of Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

Mountains.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the North, are the chief in Hungary; though many detached mountains are found in the country, as the Benikova, which is 6200 feet perpendicular height. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their sides grow the richest grapes in the world.

Metals and Minerals.] Hungary is remarkably well stocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and silver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quicksilver, crysocola, and terra sigillata. Before Hungary became the seat of destructive wars, between Turks and Christians, or fell under the power of the house of Austria, those mines were furnished with proper works and workmen, and produced vast revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and silver employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all those mines are now greatly diminished in their value, their work being destroyed or demolished; some of them, however, still subsist, to the great emolument of the natives.

Vegetable and Animal productions.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, and highly esteemed by military officers, so that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Presburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to those of any other country, at least in Europe.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] It was late before the Northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary, and some of the descendants of their legionary forces are still to be distinguished in the inland parts, by their speaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got possession of Constantinople, we have reason to think that Hungary was one of the most populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe; and if the house of Austria should give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become so again in a century hence. Both Hungaries at present, exclusive of Transylvania, and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themselves. They pique themselves on being descended from those heroes who formed the bulwark

bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur-caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived, as to buckle under one arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty, gives them an air of military dignity. The men shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are a broad sword, and a kind of poll-ax, besides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria, and their fable drefs, with sleeves strait to their arms, and their stays fastened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and English ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine-towns, wear fur, and even sheep-skin dresses. The inns upon the roads are most miserable hovels, and even those seldom to be met with. Their hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peasants, and their poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout, and the fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other strangers, settled in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the present century, were so jealous of their liberties, that rather than be tyrannized over by the house of Austria, they often submitted to that of Othman; but their fidelity to the late empress-queen, during her distress, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her house, will be always remembered to their honour.

Antiquities and Curiosities] Some of the greatest curiosities of this country are its bridges, baths, and mines; the bridge of Essek, built over the Danube, and Drave, is, properly speaking, a continuation of bridges five miles in length, fortified with towers at every quarter of a mile's distance, and is a pass that has been much contended for by the Christians and Turks. There is also a bridge of boats over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Pest; and there are the ruins of a Roman bridge, twenty Hungarian miles from Belgrade, still remaining, that exceeds any thing of the kind; it consisted of twenty square piles or pillars of stone, one hundred feet high, the bases whereof contained sixty feet on every side of the square; the distance between every one of these pillars was one hundred and seventy feet, joined by arches, with this inscription, PROVIDENTIA AUG. VERE PONTIFICIS, VIRTUS ROMANA QUID NON DOMAT? SUB JUGUM ECCE RAPITURET DANUBIUS: and, to perpetuate the memory of this structure, silver medals were stamped with the inscription DANUBIUS.

The baths of Buda have been mentioned already, as the most magnificent in Europe; and these mines in the Carpathian mountains afford every kind of metal.

It is said, a better account may be collected of eight emperors and kings, from the medals and inscriptions found in Hungary, than has been given by any historians. Zamocius relates, that there are coins

to be met with here, that give us the portraiture of Lyfimachus, Alexander the Great, Philip of Macedon, and Darius. There were found near the town of Deva a great quantity of ancient gold medals, each of them weighing two or three crowns a-piece, which had on one side the image of Lyfimachus, and on the reverse, Victoria; and with the medals was found a golden serpent.

One of the most remarkable natural curiosities of Hungary, is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the South, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away further South than has been yet discovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-six. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article in natural philosophy. Astonishing rocks are common in Hungary, and some of its churches are of admirable architecture.

Language.] The language of the Hungarians is peculiar to this country. It comes nearest the Hebrew, which is governed by points and accents, as this is; but the meanest of the people speak a kind of barbarous Latin, by which they entertain a correspondence with the Poles and Germans. The Pater-noster in the Hungarian language is as follows: *My at yank ki vagi a menneyekben szenteitekk meg a te neved jaijen el a te orszagod leg yen meg a te akeratod mint menyben ugi itt e faldenis a mi mindennapi kenyerunket ad meg nekunk may es boscsad meg a mi vetkeinket mikeppen mijis meg, boksatunk azoknak a kik me ellensunk vetenek es ne vigy nankst a kistrtebo szabadier meg minket a gonosztl murt tied az orszag az batolom es diefsejseg mind arakke. Amen.*

Religion.] The established religion of the Hungarians is the Roman Catholic; but the Hussites of Bohemia propagating their religion here in the fifteenth century, and the Lutherans in the sixteenth, the major part of the inhabitants are now Protestants or Greeks, and the late empress-queen, out of gratitude for their services, has restored them to the full exercise of their civil and religious liberties.

Archbishopricks and Bishopricks.] The archbishopricks are Presburg, Gran, and Colocza. The bishopricks, Great Waradin, Agria, Velprin, Raab, and five churches.

Universities.] In the universities (if they can be properly so called,) of Fimran, Buda, Raab, and Cacham, are professors of the several arts and sciences; but being commonly Jesuits, the Lutherans and Calvinists go to German and other universities.

Cities, Towns, Forts, and other } These are greatly decayed from
Edifices, public and private. } their ancient magnificence, but
 many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg, though the capital of the kingdom, is neither large, well built, nor well fortified. On a hill above the town stands the castle, in which the Hungarian regalia are kept. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but
 its

its strength and fortifications, and the same may be said of Pest, which lyes on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab is likewise a strong city, as is Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

Commerce and Manufactures.] Having already mentioned the natural produce of the country, all we can add is, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives consist of metals, drugs, and salt.

Constitution and Government.] The Hungarians dislike the term of queen, and called their late sovereign King Teresa. Their government preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which resembles the court of chancery in England, and which resides at Vienna; as the stadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the Gespan chafts resemble our justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

Military Strength.] The sovereign can bring to the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above 20,000; these are generally light-horse, and well known to modern times by the name of Hussars. They are not near so large as the German horse; and therefore the Hussars stand upon their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness have been found so serviceable in war, that the greatest powers in Europe have troops that go by the same name. Their foot are called Pandours and Croats, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horse and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a pursuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

Coins.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are still extant in the cabinets of the curious, a complete series of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

GOLD COINS.

l. s. d.

Double Ducats	0 18 7
Single Ducats	0 9 3½

SILVER COINS the same as in Germany.

Arms.] The emperor, for armorial ensigns, bears quarterly, bar-wise argent, and gules of eight pieces.

History.] The Huns, after subduing this country, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states, and the first who assumed the title of King was Stephen, about the year 1000, when he embraced Christianity. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert

ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Crontea, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Hunniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, who invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raised Matthias Corvinus, son to Hunniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solymian, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almost proved fatal to Hungary, but archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he succeeded with some difficulty, and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, tho' by its constitution its crown ought to be elective. For the rest of the Hungarian history see Germany.

TRANSYLVANIA.

Subject to the house of Austria.

Situation and Extent. **B**ETWEEN the latitudes of forty-five and forty-eight degrees North, about 180 miles; and between the longitudes of twenty-two, and twenty-five degrees East, about 120 miles.

Boundaries.] On the North by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the South and East by the Irongate mountains, which divide it from Walachia and Moldavia; and on the West by Hungary.

Chief towns.

Hermanstadt, E. lon. 24. N. lat. 46-32. The capital.
Saltzenburgh, in the middle.
Cronstat, E. on the frontiers of Turkey.
Beftricia, near the gold mines, N. W.

Chief towns.

Clawfenburg, W. A strong and well-built city.
Weissenburg, in the middle, situated on the Merish. A strong city.
Deva, South, a noted pass, on the river Merish.

Mountains and Forests.] This is a very mountainous country; the Carpathian mountains in the North, and the Irongate mountains on the East, are exceeding high, and covered with snow great part of the year; the inland country is also mountainous, and covered with woods,

woods, as the frontiers towards Turkey also are, from whence the Latin name of Transylvania was given to it.

Rivers.] The chief rivers are, 1. The Alauta, which forms part of the boundary against Turkey on the East, and running from North to South, falls into the Danube; and 2. The Merish, which runs from North to South, thro' the middle of the country, and then, turning West, falls into the Theffe, opposite to Segedin.

Air.] The air is warm here, but not so unhealthful as that of Hungary.

Soil and Produce.] The soil is fruitful, abounding in corn, wine, cattle, and rich pastures; and the mines and sands of their rivers afford gold, silver, iron, and salt.

Manufactures and Traffic.] Their principal manufactures are copper and iron utensils; their foreign trade is inconsiderable, and the soil is rich, it does not yield so much profit to the sovereign as might be expected, it being a frontier province, and frequently ravaged and plundered by friends and foes; which is the reason also that it is not populous.

Language.] Their language is the Sclavonian, of which we shall take notice in the next province.

Religion.] The established religion here, as well as in Hungary, is popery; but there are a great number of Protestants, who were persecuted as the Hungarians were, and usually joined the malecontents of that kingdom, and the Turks, who protected both; but the Transylvanians are now some of the most faithful subjects the late queen of Hungary had.

Bishoprick.] The bishoprick of Hermanstadt is the only bishoprick we know of; and there are no universities mentioned in their history.

Coins.] The German coins are current here: we do not find they have any peculiar to this province.

History.] Transylvania, part of the ancient Dacia, is said to have been subdued by Lyfimachus, one of Alexander's generals. Julius Cæsar repulsed the Dacians when they passed the Danube, and invaded the Roman empire. Augustus fortified the Southern shore of the Danube, to prevent their incursions. The emperor Trajan subdued them, and reduced Dacia to the form of a province, and the Romans held it till the time of the emperor Aurelian. It was over-run by the Goths, on the decline of the Roman empire, and the Goths were expelled by the Huns. Stephen I. king of Hungary, subdued Transylvania, and introduced the Christian religion there, anno 1000. From that time this country was a province of Hungaria, and governed by an Hungarian viceroy, called a Vavoid; and the vavoids at length set up for themselves, and assumed an independency. In the year 1526, two ri-

val princes contending for this principality, one of them was supported by the German emperor, and the other by the Turk; whereupon this country became the seat of war for many years. The princes of the house of Ragotski were at the head of the Protestant faction, and supported by the Turks; but, being at length obliged to quit Transylvania by the Austrians, Ragotski fled for refuge into Turkey; and, at the treaty of Carlowitz, anno 1699, this country was confirmed to the house of Austria by the Turks.

It is at present inhabited by three different people, that have little relation to each other, viz. 1. Saxons; 2. Huns; and, 3. Cingars. The Saxons have near two thirds of the country; the posterity of the Huns are situated on the North-East; and the Cingars, who are Gipsies, live in tents, and encamp all over the country; these last chiefly manage the hardware manufactures.

S C L A V O N I A.

Subject to the house of Austria.

Situation and Extent. **B**ETWEEN the latitudes of forty-five and forty-seven degrees North, about sixty miles broad; and between the longitudes of sixteen and twenty-two degrees East, about 200 miles long.

Boundaries.] On the North by the river Drave; on the East by the Danube; on the South by the Save; and on the West by Stiria in Austria.

Chief towns,

Capital, POSEGA, lat. 45-35. N.	Peterwaradin, S. E.
long. 18-42, E.	Salankamen, E.
Walpo, N. E.	Carlowitz, E.
Esseck, N. E. at the confluence	Walcowar, E.
of the Drave and Danube.	Gradiska, S. on the Save.
Zagrab, W. on the Save.	Ratzen, E.

Ratzia is the South-East division of this province, so denominated from the chief town Ratzen; the people are called Ratzians, or Rascians; their militia being part of the irregular troops that did their late sovereign, the queen of Hungary, such service in the late wars.

Soil, Produce, and Manufactures.] Sclavonia is a level country, not encumbered by woods or mountains, well watered by those fine navigable rivers, the Danube, Drave, and Save, besides other lesser streams,

streams, which render the soil exceeding fruitful, producing corn and wine in abundance where it is cultivated; but being a frontier between the Turks and Christians, and frequently subjected to the calamities of war, the husbandman has little encouragement to improve his grounds, or the mechanic his manufactures.

Language.] The Sclavonian is one of the four original languages of Europe, and still spoken by the Poles, Russians, Hungarians, and Turks. Some have reckoned up sixty nations that spoke this language. Their Pater-noster is as follows, viz. *Otche nar, iſe jeſi nanebeſiech; da ſwialitſa imia twoie; da perijdet tzaſtwije twoie; da budet volja twoja jaco nanebeſi i na zemli; chlieb nar naſuſehnij dajid nam dnies; joſlavi ham dalgi naſa jaco imij oſtaulianjem doſnicon naſnim; ine wawedi naſ woifkufchenie; na iſlawi naſ of luſzawago; jaco twoi jeſt tzaſtwije i ſila wo i ſlawia wieki.* Amen.

Religion.] The religion eſtabliſhed here is Popery, but there is a mixture of Greek Chriſtians among them, as well as Jews.

Biſhopricks and Universities.] The only biſhopricks are the cities of Poſega and Zagrab; and, as to the univerſities, they have none: neither arts nor traffic can flouriſh in a country that is perpetually the ſeat of war.

Coins.] As to coins, there is no mint in this country, but the German and Turkiſh coins are current here.

Name and Revolutions.] The ancient Sclavonia contained many large countries; ſome have extended it from the Adriatic to the Euxine ſea. It is ſaid to have taken its name from the Sclavi, a Scythian nation, which ſubdued Greece, as well as this country, in the reign of the emperor Juſtinian. The Venetians made a conqueſt of Sclavonia, and compelled the natives to ſubmit to the vileſt drudgeries, inſomuch, that ſome derive the word Slave from this people, thus oppreſſed and abuſed by their conquerors. The Hungarians and Venetians poſſeſſed this country alternately. The king of Hungary was ſovereign of Sclavonia, when the Grand Signior, Solymán the Magnificent, invaded and reduced it, anno 1540; and the Turks remained poſſeſſed of it till the year 1687; ſoon after which they loſt this, and all the territories the Auſtrians poſſeſs North of the Save and the Danube.

CROATIA.

C R O A T I A.

Subject to the house of Austria.

Situation and Extent. } **B**ETWEEN the latitudes of forty-five and forty-six 1-half degrees North, about seventy miles; and between the longitudes of fifteen and seventeen degrees East, about eighty miles.

Boundaries.] On the North by the river Save, which divides it from Slavonia; on the East by Bosnia; on the South by Morlachia; and on the West by the duchy of Carniola.

Chief towns.

Carlstadt, E. lon. 16. N. lat. 46-5. | Castanovits, situated on the Un-
Siseg, situated on the Save, East of | na, East
Carlstadt.

Air, Soil, Religion, and Revolutions.] This country, as to the air, soil, and produce, so much resembles Slavonia, that there is no necessity of repeating these articles; their religion also is the same, and they have undergone the same revolutions as Slavonia has done.

Governments, Bishopricks, Universities, and Coins.] As to government, these frontier provinces having all been re-conquered from the Turks by the house of Austria, they are all subject to that house; and under a despotic, absolute dominion, having no laws but such as the conquerors please to impose. We meet with no bishopricks or universities here; and the coins which pass here are those of Germany or Turkey.

Language.] The language is the Slavonian.

Inhabitants.] The inhabitants of all these countries are brave, hardy, and inured to war: they formerly contained a vast variety of different nations, who collected here when driven out of other countries by the Romans. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of rivers, and the strength of the country, favoured their resistance, and notwithstanding the power of their neighbours they still retain their independence.

MORLACHIA.

M O R L A C H I A.

Situation and Extent. } THIS country runs SSE. and NNW. in length about 100 miles, and in breadth about 30 miles, on a mean.

Boundaries.] On the North by Carniola and Croatia; on the East by Bosnia; on the South by Dalmatia; and on the West by the Gulph of Venice; formerly subject to the Austrians, but now to the Venetians.

Chief town.

Zegna, or Zeng; situated on a bay of the sea, in the gulph of Venice, E. lon. 16. N. lat. 45-20. the see of a bishop, suffragan of Spalatto.

KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, Formerly Ducal Prussia.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent. } THIS country is bounded on the North by part of Samogitia; on the South by Poland Proper and Masovia; on the East by part of Lithuania; and on the West by Polish Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 112.

Name, Air, Soil, Produce, and Rivers.] The name of Prussia is evidently derived from the Borussia, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horse, sheep, deer, and game; bears, wolves, wild-boars, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well stored with fish; and amber is found on its coasts towards the Baltic. The woods furnish the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, besides quantities of pot-ashes. The principal rivers are, the Vistula, the Bregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Passarge, and the Elbe, which sometimes damage the country by inundations.

The

The following table shews at one view the whole of his Prussian majesty's territories, which lye scattered in other divisions of Germany, Poland, Swisserland, and the Northern kingdoms, with their names.

Protestants.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Poland.	Prussia,	9,950	160	112	KONING- BERG, { 54 43. N. Lat. { 21-35. E. Lon.
Up. Saxony.	Brandenburg,	10,910	215	110	Berlin.
	Pomerania,	4,820	150	63	Camin.
Lo. Saxony.	Swe. Pomerania,	2,991	90	38	Stetin.
	Magdeburg,	1,535	63	50	Magdeburg.
Bohemia.	Halberstadt,	450	41	17	Halberstadt.
	Glatz,	550	38	23	Glatz.
Westphalia.	Minden,	595	42	26	Minden.
	Revensburg,	525	38	34	Herwerden.
	Lingen,	120	15	11	Lingen.
	Cleves,	630	43	21	Cleves.
	Meurs,	35	10	6	Meurs.
	Mark,	980	52	43	Ham.
	East Friesland,	690	46	32	Embsen.
	Lippe,	25	8	4	Lipstadt.
	Gulich,	528	44	24	Gulich.
Netherlands.	Tecklenburgh,	36	12	6	Tecklenburg.
	Gelders,	360	34	23	Gelders.
Switzerland.	Neuschatel,	320	32	20	Neuschatel.
Total, . . . 34,881					

Likewise great part of Silesia, which the present king of Prussia hath, under various pretences, wrested from the late empress-queen; and, availing himself also of the internal troubles in Poland, he has, by virtue of no other right than that which a powerful army confers on every tyrant, seized upon Dantzick and Thorn, with the countries on the Vistula, the Neisser, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions.

Population, Inhabitants, Man-ners, &c. of Prussia Proper. } The inhabitants of this kingdom were, by Dr Busching, computed to amount to 635,998 persons capable of bearing arms; and another German author of equal credit makes the number about 450,000; since the year 1719 it is computed that about 34,000 colonists have removed thitherward from France, Switzerland, and Germany, of which number 17,000 were Saltzburgers. The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from those of the other inhabitants of Germany. The same may be said of their customs and diversions.

Religion, Schools, and Academies.] The religion of Prussia is, thro' his present majesty's wisdom, very tolerant. The established religions are those of the Lutherans and Calvinists, but chiefly the former; but Papists, Anabaptists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in schools. An university was founded at Koningsberg in 1544, but we know of no very remarkable learned men that it has produced.

Antiquities

Antiquities and Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] See Germany.

Cities.] The kingdom of Prussia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments, the former of which contains 280 parishes, and the latter 105.

Koningsberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, is seated on the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, and is about eighty-four miles from Dantzick. According to Dr Busching, this city is seven miles in circumference, and contains 3,800 houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation is perhaps a little exaggerated likewise, because it supposes, at an average, near sixteen persons in every house. Koningsberg has ever made a considerable figure in commerce and shipping; its river being navigable for ships; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, besides 298 coasters; and 373 floats of timber ware, in the compass of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, besides its college or university, which contains thirty-eight professors, boasts of magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embellishments. It has a good harbour and citadel, which is called Frederickburg, and is a regular square.

Commerce and Manufactures.] The present king of Prussia, by the assistance of an excellent police, has brought the commerce and manufactures of this country to a very flourishing state, which is daily improving. The manufactures of Prussia consist of glass, iron-work, paper, gun-powder, copper, and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, silk, gold and silver lace, stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval stores, amber, lint-feed, and hemp-feed, oat-meal, fish, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year with those commodities, chiefly from Koningsberg.

Constitution and Government.] His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions, but is too wise to oppress his subjects, though he avails himself to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state, viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great bulgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also some other councils, and thirty-seven bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. from the commons. Besides these institutions, his majesty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

Revenues.] His Prussian majesty, by means of the happy situation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own excellent regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and an half ago, was the seat of boors and barbarism. It is said, that Amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues arise from his demefnes, his duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states; but the exact sum is not known, though we may conclude that it is very considerable, from the immense charges of the late war.

Military Strength.] The regulations of this department, introduced by his majesty, have a wonderful quick operation in forming his troops and recruiting his armies. Every regiment has a particular district assigned it, where the young men proper for bearing arms are registered; and when occasion offers, they join their regiment, and being incorporated with veterans, they soon become well-disciplined troops. The Prussian army in time of peace consists of 175,000 of the best disciplined troops in the world, and during the last war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men.

Arms, and orders of Knighthood.] The royal arms of Prussia are argent, an eagle displayed fable, crowned or, for Prussia. Azure, the imperial scepter or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed gules, with semi-circular wreaths for the marquisate of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

There are two orders of Knighthood; the first, that of the black eagle, instituted by Frederick I. on the day of his coronation at Königsberg, with this motto, *Sum quique*. The sovereign is always grand-master, and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty.

Next to this is the order of merit, instituted by his present majesty; the motto is *Pour le merite*.

History.] The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, and refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Christianity, wanted to subject them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland, one of whom, Boleslaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They preserved their liberty, and continued Pagans till the time of the Crusades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1230, undertook their conversion by the edge of the sword, but upon condition of having as a reward the property of the country when conquered. A long series of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Prussia were almost extirpated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the most incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After this vast waste of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Casimir, king of Poland, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-master should possess the other part; but were to acknowledge themselves vassals of Poland. This gave rise to fresh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unsuccessfully, to throw off their vassalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the last grand-master of the Teutonic order, concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the East part of Prussia, (formerly called, for that reason, Ducal Prussia) but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to descend to his male-heirs; and upon failure of his male-issue, to his brothers and their male-heirs. Thus ended

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ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederick-William of Brandenburg had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by Casimir king of Poland, from vassalage; and he and his descendants were declared independent and sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

As the Protestant religion had been introduced in this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that persuasion, the Protestant interest favoured them so much, that Frederick, the son of Frederick-William the Great, was raised to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, the present king of Prussia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father Frederick-William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of strong natural parts, and performed prodigious services to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions sterling in his treasury, which enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful resources, by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the present age*.

P O L A N D, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 700 }	between }	16 and 34 East longitude.
Breadth 680 }		

46 and 57 North latitude.

Boundaries.] **B**EFORE the commencement of the late war, the kingdom of Poland, with the great duchy of Lithuania annexed, was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muscovy,

* Frederick III. king of Prussia and elector of Brandenburg, was born in 1712, married in 1733 to Elizabeth Christiana, of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle, born in 1714, by whom he has no issue. The issue of the late William Augustus, next brother to the king, are, Frederick-William, prince-royal of Prussia, born in 1744, and married in 1765 to the princess Elizabeth-Ulrica of Brunswick. 2. Frederick-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 1751, and married in 1767 to the prince of Orange.

covy, and the Baltic sea ; on the East by Muscovy ; on the South by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary ; and on the West by Germany : its principal divisions were,

	Poland.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Papists.	Lithuania,	64,800	333	310	Wilna.
	Podolia,	29,000	360	120	Caminiack.
	Volhinia.	25,000	305	150	Lucko.
	Red Russia,	25,200	232	185	Lemberg.
	Great Poland,	19,200	208	180	Guesna.
	Little Poland,	18,000	230	130	Cracow.
	Polesia,	14,000	186	97	Bressel.
	Masovia,	8,400	152	90	WARSAW, { E. lon. 21-5. N. lat. 52-15.
	Samogitia,	8,000	155	98	Rasien.
	Prussia Royal,	6,400	118	104	Elbing.
Protestants.	Polachia,	4,000	133	42	Bielh.
	{ Courland, subject to Russia,	4,414	174	80	Mittaw.
Total . . .		216,414			

Dantzick, Thorn, and Elbing, in Prussia Royal, are free cities, under the protection of Poland, but have been seized lately by the king of Prussia.

Name.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Sclavonian word, signifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beasts, and game of every kind.

Climate.] The air of Poland is such as may be expected from so extensive but level a country. In the North parts it is cold but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlasting snow, which has been known to fall in the midst of summer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being so unsettled, either in Winter or Summer, as might be supposed from such a Northerly situation.

Soil, Produce, and Waters.] Poland is in general a level country, and the soil is fertile in corn, of which vast quantities are sent from thence down the vistula, to Dantzic, and are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The pastures of Poland, especially in Podolia, are very rich ; and it is said one can hardly see the cattle that graze in the meadows. Here are mines of silver, copper, iron, salt and coals ; the interior parts of Poland contain forests, which furnish timber in so great quantities, that it is employed in house-building, instead of bricks, stone, and tile. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and some grapes are produced here, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine seldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clay, fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many springs is boiled into salt. There is an inflameable spring in the Palatinate of Cracow, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like

like spirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the surface without heating the water, and if neglected to be extinguished, which it may easily be, it communicates itself by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about forty years ago, the flames are said to have lasted for three years, before they could be entirely extinguished.

Peculiar to this country is a kind of manna, which in May and June the inhabitants sweep into sieves with the dew, and it serves for food, dressed various ways.

The forests of Warsovia or Masovia contain plenty of uri, or buf-faloes, whose flesh the Poles powder, and esteem it an excellent dish. Horse, wolves, boars, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Polish forests; and there is a species of wild horse and asses, that the nobility of the Ukrain, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best furs in the country; but the elk, which is common in Poland, as well as in some other Northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The flesh of the Polish elk forms the most delicious part of their greatest feasts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, the feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough, and broad, like a wild goat's. Naturalists have observed, that upon dissecting an elk, there were found in its head some large flies, with its brains almost eaten away: and it is an observation, sufficiently attested, that in the large woods and wildernesses of the North, this poor animal is attacked, towards Winter chiefly, by a large sort of flies, that thro' its ears attempt to take up their Winter quarters in its head. This persecution is thought to afflict the elk with the falling-sickness, by which means it is taken, which would otherwise prove no easy matter.

Rivers.] The rivers are, 1. The Dwina, which rises in Lithuania, and, running West, divides Poland from Livonia, falling into the Baltic below Riga. 2. The Wiesel, or Vistula, which, rising in the South of Silesia, runs East into Poland, passes by Cracow, then turns North, and, having visited Warsaw, falls into the Baltic at Dantzick, by several channels, receiving the Bog above Plocsko. 3. The Warta, which runs from East to West, and falls into the Oder at Kustrin. 4. The Wilia, which, rising in the East of Lithuania, runs West by Wilna, and, having received the Berezini, or Russ, falls into the Baltic near Memel. 5. The Nieper, or Boristhenes, which, rising in the province of Moscow, runs West into Poland, then turning South, enters Muscovy again at Kiof, then continuing its course South-East, falls into the Euxine Sea at Oczakow, having received the Przypiecz in its passage. 6. The Bog, which rises in Volhinia, runs South-East through Podolia, and falls into the Nieper above Oczakow. 7. The Niester, which rises in Red Russia, and, running South-East, divides Poland from Turkey, and, having passed by Bender, falls into the Euxine sea, at Belgorod.

Manufactures.] Their chief manufactures are linen, woolen, brags, and iron.

Traffic.] The Poles never apply themselves to traffic; this is left to

to the city of Dantzick, and other port-towns on the Baltic, or Vistula. These are a different sort of people that live by traffic, neither subject to the commonwealth or Polish gentry. Dantzick is a republic, governed by its own magistrates; and the common people live in a state of freedom in this and other trading towns, if compared to the vassals of the Polish gentry.

Constitution.] Poland does not only resemble a republic, but is really so, and styled such by the Poles themselves, in their acts of state; for the legislative power is lodged in the states, and the executive power in the senate, consisting of the king, primate, sixteen bishops, and one hundred and thirty laymen; of this senate the king is only president when he is present, but they can meet and consult without him. The king is elected by the clergy and gentry in the plains of Warsaw; and if the minority should be so hardy as to insist on their dissent, the majority will fall upon them and cut them in pieces; for which reason they all appear unanimous, and pretend to adhere to the strongest side, whatever their inclinations may be.

The new king is obliged to sign an instrument called the *Pacta Conventa*, whereby he engages that he will introduce no foreign forces, or prefer any foreigners, or other persons, but natives of the province where they are to execute their respective offices; and, though the king appoints the officers of state, they are only accountable to the republic, and paid by them. The king cannot displace an officer; and if the king breaks the *Pacta Conventa*, his subjects are justified if they resist him, make war upon him, and even depose him. He cannot touch the public treasure. All the forces are paid by the republic, as well as the officers of the state; and the king has a clear revenue of 140,000*l.* per annum, which has been found sufficient to maintain his household with great splendor, and yet the present king had a greater sum settled upon him by the commission of state. He cannot make war or peace without the consent of the states. The king cannot marry without the consent of the republic; and the queen (as well as the king) must profess herself a papist, or she cannot be crowned, of which the last queen was an instance: she chose to want the title of queen rather than alter her religion, which was that of a Lutheran Protestant. Her court is kept at the charge of the republic, and a provision made for her on the king's death.

The diet, or assembly of the states, consists of the senate and the deputies, or representatives of every palatinate, (county,) and city, and meet usually every two years; and oftner upon extraordinary occasions, if summoned by the king, or in his absence by the archbishop of Gnesna. When a general diet is to be held, the several districts are informed of the business to be transacted there, by letters sent by the king: upon this notice the gentry assemble in each palatinate as a dietine, and there discuss the business; and choose nuncios, or deputies, to attend the general diet, to act there conformable to the sense of the dietine. The general diet sits but six weeks, and often breaks up in a tumult much sooner; for one dissenting voice prevents their passing any laws, or coming to any resolution on what is proposed to them from the throne. The senate consists of the archbishops, bishops, palatines, castellans, and great officers of state. Poland is, in reality, a confederacy of united states: every palatinate, or county,

makes

makes laws, which must not however be contrary to the general laws of the republic, enacted by the diet, or general assembly of the states.

Poland Proper, and the grand duchy of Lithuania, are so distinct, that each of them have their crown-general, chancellor, vice-chancellor, treasurer, and sub-marshal; these ten, viz. five for the kingdom, and five for the duchy are of the council.

From this short sketch it appears that Poland is now in the same kind of state that Great Britain and some other nations were formerly; and that the Polish constitution was originally founded to prevent the sovereign from being too powerful for the lords, while it invested him with ample prerogatives: but that the best concerted measures for the good of the whole should be obstructed by a single negative is a great defect, and must ever be productive of disorder; for other states, which may have particular interests or views, will always find means to gain one or more members of the diet to act agreeable to the desires of such states; besides this, there are many evident inconveniences arising in a state where the lords have absolute power over their vassals, even to their lives.

Dantzick, and some other trading towns, are distinct republics governed by their respective magistrates. Ducal Prussia is subject to the king of Prussia, and the duchy of Courland to its own duke.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] From what has been said of the extent of Poland, it is impossible to form an estimate of the number of its inhabitants: they undoubtedly, before the breaking out of the late war, were very numerous; but they are so little known, even at present, that numbers of them, in remoter parts, continue still to be heathens, or have very imperfect notions of Christianity. Some have supposed Poland and Lithuania to contain 15,000,000 of inhabitants, and to be at least as populous as France. When we consider that the Poles have no colonies, and sometimes enjoy long tracts of peace, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are said to inhabit their villages, exclusive of those who live in their cities and towns, perhaps this calculation is not exaggerated. The Poles, in their persons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their shapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honest, and hospitable; and their women sprightly, yet modest, and submissive to their husbands.

They usually travel on horseback; let the distance be ever so small, and they are so hardy, that they will sleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in frost and snow. They never live above stairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwelling-house on the third, and the gate on the front. They content themselves with a few small beds; and if any lodge at their houses, they must carry their bedding with them. When they sit down to dinner or supper, they have their trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all serving with the most profound respect; for the nobles, who are poor frequently, find themselves under the necessity of serving them that are rich; but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peasant boy to

wait.

wait on him, maintained by the master of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor spoons, but every guest brings them with him; and they no sooner sit down to table, than all the doors are shut, and not opened till the company return home. It is usual for a nobleman to give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let him drink out of the same cup with himself: but this is the less extraordinary, if it be considered, that these servants are esteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in fashion, both here and in Russia; nor will they easily excuse any person from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and equipages of the Polish nobility, and the reader may figure to himself an idea of all that is fastidious, ceremonious, expensive, and shewy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule, for it is not unusual to see the Lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, with a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman-usher, an old gentleman for her governante, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train; and if it be night her coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of all their pomp, however, is proportioned to their estates, but each person goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, citizens, and peasants. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the differences that arise from the public posts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another brothers. They do not value titles of honour, but think a gentleman of Poland is the highest appellation they can enjoy. They enjoy many considerable privileges, and indeed the boasted Polish liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient custom and prescription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals; pay no taxes; are subject to none but the king; may chuse whom they will for their king, and lay him under what restraints they please by the *pacta conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of some particular towns, can purchase lands. In short, they are almost entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well-regulated state; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. These great privileges make the Polish gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, with a despotic power, as we have said, over their tenants, whom they call their subjects, and transfer or assign over with the lands, cattle and furniture. Some of them have estates of from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles possesses above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raise eight or ten thousand men. The house of a nobleman is a secure asylum for persons who have committed any crime; for none must presume to take them from thence by force. They have their horse and foot-guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their antichambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, some

of them having five thousand guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate are often determined by the sword. When great men have suits at law, the diet, or rather tribunals, decide them; yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the sword; for the justice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raise five or six thousand men of a side, plunder and burn one another's cities, and besiege castles and forts; for they think it below them to submit to the sentence of judges, without a battle. As to the peasants, they are born slaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peasant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peasant equal in value. A nobleman who is desirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden house, in which he settles a peasant and his family, giving him a cow, two horse, a certain number of geese, hens, &c. and as much corn as is sufficient to maintain him the first year, and to improve for his own future subsistence and the advantage of his lord.

The peasants having no property, all their acquisitions serve only to enrich their master. They are indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lords; and they are exposed to the dismal, and frequently fatal effects, of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical masters, who oppress them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuse it in the most gross and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being exposed to the most brutal treatment. One blessing, however, attends the wretched situation of the Polish peasants, which is their insensibility, and that accustomed from their infancy to hardships and severe labour, they scarce entertain an idea of better circumstances and more liberty. They regard their masters as a superior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their severe lot. Nay, they are ready upon every occasion to sacrifice themselves and their families for their master, especially if the latter takes care to feed them well. They think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat.

The dress of the Poles is pretty singular. They cut the hair of their heads short, and shave their beards, leaving only large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and girded with a sash, but the sleeves fit as close to their arms as a waistcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they wear neither stock nor neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a sabre or cutlass, by their sides. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the best quality wear fables, and others the skins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty suits of clothes, all as rich as possible, and which descend from father to son. Charles II. of England, thought of introducing the Polish dress into his court,

and, after his restoration, wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of English broad-cloth, but discontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. As to the peasants, in winter they wear a sheep-skin with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloath; but wear no linen. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker part to guard the soles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

The inns of this country are long stables built with boards and covered with straw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end, but none can lodge there, because of flies and other vermin; so that strangers generally choose rather to lodge among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provisions with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with necessaries.

Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Vorstius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet the country is far from being favourable to learning. Latin is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever shewn for learning, the servitude of the lower people, and the universal superstition among all ranks of men, have wonderfully retarded, and still continue to retard the progress of letters in this kingdom.

Cities, Towns, Forts, and other } Warsaw lies on the Vistula, and
Edifices, Public and Private. } almost in the centre of Poland. It is the royal residence; but though it contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, besides churches and convents, it has little or no commerce. The same may be said of Cracow, which is the capital (though that honour is disputed by Warsaw) for we are told, that notwithstanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich salt mines, and is said to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconsiderable.

Dantzick is the capital of Polish Prussia, and is famous in history on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city; its houses generally are five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chestnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still a most eminent commercial city, although it seems to be somewhat past its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the President de Thou wrote his much esteemed *Historia sui Temporis*; wherein, under the year 1607, he so highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, with a small adjacent territory about forty miles round it, under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magistracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are

Lutherans;

Lutherans; although the Romanists and Calvinists be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has twenty-six parishes, with many convents and hospitals, and is supposed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants. Its own shipping is numerous, but the foreign ships constantly resorting to it are more so, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year also 1288 Polish vessels came down the Vistula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchless granaries; from whence that grain is distributed to many foreign nations; Poland being justly deemed the greatest magazine of corn in all Europe, and Dantzick the greatest port for distributing it every where: besides which, Dantzick exports great quantities of naval stores, and vast variety of other articles.

The inhabitants of Dantzick have often changed their masters, and have sometimes been under the protection of the English and Dutch, but of late they have shewed a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being less likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Tho' strongly fortified, and possessed of 150 large brass cannon, it could not, thro' its situation, stand a regular siege, being surrounded with eminences.

The reason why Dantzick, Thorn, and Elbing, enjoy privileges, both civil and religious, very different from those of the rest of Poland, is, because not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themselves under the protection of Poland; but reserving to themselves large and ample privileges, of which they are likely to be stripped by the king of Prussia, who, on account of their situation on the Baltic, their opulence, their commerce, their revenues and duties, has long beheld them with a wishful eye, and now finds it extremely convenient to have them annexed to his dominions.

King's Titles.] King of Poland, Great Duke of Lithuania, Duke of Russia, Prussia, Masovia, Samogicia, Kiovia, Volhinia, Padolia, Podlachia, Livonia, Smolensko, Severia, and Czernikovia.

Arms.] The arms of Poland are quarterly. In the first and fourth gules an eagle argent, crowned and armed or, for Poland; in the second and third gules, a cavalier, armed cap-a-pee argent; in the dexter-hand a naked sword of the same; in the sinister a shield azure, charged with a bearded cross or, mounted on a courser of the second, barbed of the third, and neiled of the fourth, for Lithuania, for the crest, a crown heightened with eight fleurs-de-lis, and close with four demi-circles, ending in a monde or; the motto, *Habent sua sidera Reges*.

Forces.] The forces of Poland are all horse, and it is said they can raise 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000; but then it is presumed they include their numerous vassals and servants, who are obliged to follow their lords, when they are summoned, on pain of forfeiting their estates. The ordinary army consists of 36,000 in Poland, and 12,000 in Lithuania.

The gentlemen hold their lands by military tenures, and are obliged to bring a certain number of horsemen into the field, in proportion to the value or rents of their lands; but then they need not re-

main in the field above six weeks, and are not obliged to march out of the kingdom. As they have no foot, they hire Germans usually, especially when they besiege any place; and, since the accession of the Saxon family to the throne, they have had more of their foot than they desired, tho' they are no expence to the republic, but paid by the king.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] Among the curiosities of this country may be reckoned the wild men that are frequently found in the woods, whither, it is supposed, their parents carried them in their infancy, to avoid the Tartars, who often make incursions into Poland, and carry off whole villages of people into slavery. Upon a close pursuit, it is supposed that the women have been forced to leave their children behind them, for they are frequently found among the bears, by whom they are supposed to be nourished, and taught to feed like them: those that have been taken go upon all-fours, tho' they sometimes stand upright: they have not the use of speech at first, but have been taught to speak by being brought into towns, and used kindly; they retain no memory of their former savage lives, when they come to be humanized and made converseable.

The salt-pits in Poland are wonderful caverns, several hundred yards deep, and at the bottom there are a thousand intricate windings or labyrinths: these are excessive cold, and such storms of wind arise sometimes, as nothing can resist. One of these mines has yielded the republic the value of forty thousand pounds a-year: and in them are three kinds of salt; one extreme hard, and as clear as chrystal; another not so hard, but as clear: the third is soft and brittle, and of a pure white. They are forced to take great care of their lights, on account of a vapour which will sometimes take fire, and explode with great violence. The appearance of this vapour is said to be like a parcel of cobwebs floating in the air. Its nature is unknown to our philosophers.

The gentlemen of Poland have a right to all mines found in their lands, whether metals or salt, except white salt, of which the king has an eighth, and some small demands which the queen and the officers of state have upon the rest.

Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the desarts of Podolia, are several grottoes, where a great number of human bodies are preserved, tho' buried a vast many years since, being neither so hard nor so black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they used to wear. It is thought that this preserving quality is owing to the nature of the soil, which is dry and sandy. Poland can boast of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themselves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, silver, and enamelled vessels, presented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preserved in the cathedral of Guesna.

Language.] The proper language of Poland is the Sclavonian, but intermixed with the High Dutch; and in Lithuania the language differs much from that of the other provinces. Latin is generally understood, and spoke by the meanest people, though not very correctly.

ly. The Pater-noster, in the Polish language is of the following tenor, viz. *Oycze nasz, ktorys na niebiosach; nieb si swieci imie twoie; niech przyidzie krolestwo twoie; niech bedzie wola twoja jako y w niebie; tak y na ziemi; cheleba naszego powszedniego daj nam dzisiaj: odpusc nam nasze winy, jako y my odpusc zamy naszym winowaycom; ynie wodowz nac pokuszenie; ale nas wybarw ode zdlago; abowiem twoie jest krolestwo y moc i chwala na wieke. Amen.*

Religion.] The established religion is popery, of which no people are more tenacious than the Poles, even to enthusiasm, except in the trading towns near the Baltic; and there the Lutheran religion is professed, but frequently persecuted by the republic; of which the executions at Thorn in the year 1724 are a late memorable instance. The republic tolerates every religion but Protestants, for there are a multitude of Mahometan Tartars in Lithuania, great numbers of Jews, and many of the Greek religion, who are seldom or never disturbed on account of their several persuasions.

As the Romish clergy are very numerous in Poland, and are possessed of near two thirds of the rents of the nation, therefore it may not be wondered at, that they should have a powerful sway in a nation so extremely illiterate: they judge by what they observe from the reformation in other countries, that arts and sciences do not contribute to the power of the clergy; and those of Poland being in general ignorant bigots, and chiefly watchful of their spiritual authority, they therefore leave no art untried to raise a general detestation of the Protestants whom they call Dissidents; and hence chiefly arose the troubles which distracted, and at last overthrew the nation.

Archbishopsricks, and Bishopsricks.] There are but two archbishopsricks, viz. Gnesna and Leopold. The archbishop of Gnesna is always a cardinal and primate of the kingdom, and, during an interregnum, and in the king's absence, he is regent.

The bishopsricks are those of Posna, Wilna, Cracow, Culm, Karnoslow, Window, Mednic, Plockow, Letskow, Colmemsee, Fossenburg, Premislaw, and Caminiee.

C O I N S.

l. s. d.

The Gold Ducat of Poland,	0	9	3
The old Silver Dollar of Dantzick,	0	4	6
The old Rix Dollar of Thorn,	0	4	5
The Rix Dollar of Sigismund III, and of Uladislaus IV. kings of Poland.	0	4	6

History.] The Vandals, or Veneti, were the ancient inhabitants of Poland, stiled by the Romans, Sarmatia Europæa. These were dispossessed by the Tartars and Russes, who erected several small governments, which were at length united in Leches, stiled their duke. Cracus, the founder of Cracow, reigned about the year 700, and left his dominions to his children: after his death, the Poles elected Piaustus their duke, whose posterity enjoyed it till the year 999, when Duke Boleslaus Crobray, with the concurrence of the pope and the German emperor,

emperôr, assumed the title of king, and conquered Bohemia, Moravia, and Prussia, making them tributary to Poland.

Boleslaus II. added Red Russia to Poland, by marrying the princess Viceslava heiress to that duchy, anno 1059.

In the reign of Uladislaus, who succeeded to the crown anno 1203, the pope assigned Prussia to the knights of the Teutonic order, for the service they had done in the holy wars, the Prussians being then Pagans, and the holy see claiming a right to dispose of all Pagan countries.

In the reign of Lewis, who was also king of Hungary, (1370) the Poles procured several limitations and restraints on the royal prerogatives, their kings being absolute until then.

The princess Hedwigis, daughter of Lewis, succeeded him in 1435, and marrying Uladislaus, Great Duke of Lithuania, that duchy became united to Poland.

Cassimir IV. who ascended the throne anno 1446, entering into a war with the Teutonic knights, (who endeavoured to render Prussia independent of the crown of Poland,) a treaty was at length concluded between these powers; whereby it was agreed, that all that part of Prussia, which lyes West of the river Weisel, should be subject to the crown of Poland, and the Eastern side should remain subject to the Teutonic knights, provided the grand master took an oath of fealty to the king of Poland as his vassal, which was complied with.

In this reign, the representatives from the several palatinates, or counties, were first called to the diet, or assembly of the states, the legislative power being lodged in the king and senate before.

Towards the end of this century, Jagellan, the Grand Duke of Livonia, being chosen king, embraced Christianity, and annexed his hereditary dominions to Poland; which generous act induced the Poles to continue the crown in his family till the death of the last male heir, Sigismund-Augustus, in 1552.

About the year 1520, in the reign of Sigismund, Luther's doctrine, tending to a reformation, was introduced into Prussia, and embraced by the city of Dantzick and other towns in the North of Poland.

The Russians invading Livonia in this reign, the Southern provinces put themselves under the protection of Poland, and the North of Livonia called in the Swedes to defend them against the Russians, which was the occasion of perpetual wars among those powers.

Henry of Valois, duke of Anjou, being elected king of Poland, anno 1574, abdicated Poland, on his succeeding to the crown of France; whereupon Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania, was elected king of Poland, and marrying the sister of Sigismund-Augustus, established himself on the throne, in opposition to the Austrian party. He established courts to receive appeals from inferior courts, there being no appeals allowed before, but to the king and council; and he also settled the Cossacks, a rude people, in the Ukraine. He was succeeded, in 1586, by Sigismund, a son of the king of Sweden; who, being afterwards crowned king of Sweden, and aspiring to that of Russia also, he was engaged in long wars; he at last contented himself with the throne of Poland.

Uladislaus, who ascended this throne anno 1622, invaded Russia, and took the capital city of Moscow, obliging the Russians to cede the province of Smolensko to Poland.

In the reign of John Cassimir, brother of Uladislaus, who was a Cardinal, and ascended the throne anno 1648, Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, in one year, viz. 1655, made an entire conquest of Poland, and Cassimir fled into Silesia; but the Swedes retiring next year, Cassimir was restored; whereupon he entertained German forces to secure his possession; but the Poles, apprehending he intended to make himself absolute, deposed him; whereupon he retired into France, and became abbot of St Germain.

Michael Wisnowiski was next elected, anno 1670; in whose reign the Turks conquered the province of Podolia, and besieged Leopold, compelling the Poles to pay them an annual tribute; whereupon the Turks abandoned Leopold.

A new war breaking out, John Sobieski, the crown-general, gained a great victory over the Turks; but the Poles refusing to keep the field any longer, he obtained no great fruits of his victory. Wisnowiski dying anno 1674, the Poles elected John Sobieski their king, in regard of his services against the Turks. It was this Sobieski who joined the duke of Lorraine, the imperial general, when the Turks besieged Vienna in 1683, and obtained that decisive victory, which compelled the Infidels to abandon Hungary not long after.

On the death of Sobieski, Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony, was chosen king of Poland, anno 1698, in opposition to the prince of Conti, who was proclaimed King by the French faction, but obliged to retire into France; and the following year, 1699, at a treaty between the Turks on one part, and the Germans and Poles on the other, at Carlowitz, the Turks restored Podolia, with the city of Caminiec, to Poland. After which the Poles insisted, that the king should send back his Saxon forces to Germany; which not being readily complied with, the diet came to a resolution, that the gentry should mount on horseback, and drive the Saxons out of the kingdom; the king, however, found means to retain these forces, by representing that they were necessary to oppose the Swedes in Livonia: and, in the year 1700, he entered into a confederacy with the Danes, Russians, and Brandenburgers, against Charles XII. king of Sweden; in which war Augustus was defeated in several battles by the Swedes, who deposed him, and advanced Stanislaus to the throne of Poland anno 1704. The king of Sweden afterwards pursued king Augustus into Saxony, took every town there subject to Augustus, except Dresden, and raised vast contributions. After which he had the assurance to visit king Augustus in Dresden, without a guard, and take his leave of him.

King Stanislaus remained on the throne of Poland until the year 1709, when King Charles the XII. being defeated by the Russians at Pultowa, and obliged to take refuge in Turkey, King Augustus re-ascended the throne of Poland, though he had sworn not to disturb Stanislaus in the possession of it. He kept a considerable body of Saxons about him afterwards, in order to prevent another revolution, and his allies the Russians lived at discretion in Poland for many years, plundering and ravaging the country in a terrible manner, under pretence of arrears due to them for their services against Sweden; which occasioned a misunderstanding between Augustus
and

and the Czar; which ran so high, that the Russians suggested to the Poles, that Augustus intended to make the crown hereditary in his family.

Some time after, the populace at Thorn (which is a Protestant town in Regal Prussia) insulting a Popish procession, anno 1724, their magistrates and several citizens were condemned to die, by commissioners sent from the court of Poland to inquire into this affair, for not suppressing the tumult; in whose behalf most of the Protestant powers of Europe interposed, threatening to revenge the magistrates death, if they were executed; but the Vienna and Hanover treaties engaging the attention of the powers of Europe at this time, the unfortunate Protestant citizens of Thorn were executed. Nothing more remarkable happened in this reign, unless it were the Poles attacking the Saxon forces, and compelling them to leave that kingdom.

Augustus II. dying in the year 1733, his son Augustus III. was advanced to the throne of Poland, by the interest of the Austrians and Russians, though the French faction had proclaimed king Stanislaus, who retiring to Dantzick, was besieged in that city by the Saxons and Russians, and, escaping from thence, retired into France; whereupon his party submitted, and swore allegiance to king Augustus, who did not seem to be much in the affection of the Poles; for though the king of Prussia plundered Saxony, and took the capital city of Dresden, in 1746, the Poles did not move a jot in his defence, disobliged probably by his long absence out of the kingdom.

A very great revolution with regard to this ancient republic hath of late taken place, insomuch that it may now be said to have no more existence as a distinct nation; the greatest part of the Polish territories being divided among the Russians, Austrians, and Prussians; and what little was left, being in a manner totally under the dominion of Russia. This revolution, the first great infringement on the political balance of Europe, and which ought to have been very alarming to other powers, was brought about in the following manner:

On the 5th of October 1763, died Augustus III. Elector of Saxony, and King of Poland. He was succeeded by Count Poniatowski, a Polish grandee, who was proclaimed, September 7th 1764, by the name of *Stanislaus Augustus*, and crowned on the 25th of November the same year.—During the interregnum which took place between the death of Augustus III. and the election of Stanislaus, a decree had been made by the convocation-diet of Poland, with regard to the *Dissidents*, as they were called, or Dissenters from the Popish religion. By this decree they were prohibited from the free exercise of their religion, much more than they had formerly been, and totally excluded from all posts and places under the government. On this several of the European powers interposed, at the application of the Dissidents, for their good offices. The courts of Petersburg, Berlin, Great Britain, and Denmark, made remonstrances to the diet; but, notwithstanding these remonstrances, the decree was confirmed by the coronation-diet held after the King's election.

October 6th 1766, an ordinary diet was assembled. Here declarations from the courts above-mentioned were presented to his Polish Majesty,

Majesty, requiring the re-establishment of the Dissidents in their civil rights and privileges, and the peaceable enjoyment of their modes of worship secured to them by the laws of the kingdom which had been observed for two centuries. These privileges, it was alledged, had been confirmed by the treaty of Oliva, concluded by all the Northern powers, which could not be altered but by the consent of all the contracting parties. The Popish party contended strongly for a confirmation of some decrees made against the Dissidents in 1717, 1723, and 1736. The deputies from the foreign powers replied, That those decrees had passed in the midst of intestine troubles, and were contradicted by the formal protestations and express declarations of foreign powers. At last, after violent contests, the matter was referred to the bishops and senators for their opinion. Upon a report from them, the diet came to a resolution, That they would fully maintain the Dissidents in all the rights and prerogatives to which they were intitled by the laws of their country; particularly by the constitutions of the year 1717, &c. and by treaties; and that as to their complaints with regard to the exercise of their religion, the college of Archbishops and Bishops, under the direction of the Prince Primate, would endeavour to remove those difficulties in a manner conformable to justice and neighbourly love.—By this time, however, the court of Russia seemed determined to make her remonstrances more effectual, and a small body of Russian troops marched to within two miles of the capital of Poland.

These resolutions of the diet were by no means agreeable to the Dissidents. They dated the beginning of their sufferings from the year 1717. The referring their grievances to the Archbishops and Bishops was looked upon as a measure the most unreasonable that could be imagined, as that body of men had always been their oppressors, and been in fact the authors of all the evils which had befallen them.—Shortly after matters were considered in this view, an additional body of Russians, to the number of about 15,000, entered Poland.

The Dissidents, being now pretty sure of the protection of foreign powers, entered, on the 20th of March 1767, into two confederacies, at Thorn and Sluck. One of them was signed by the Dissidents of Great and Little Poland, and the other by those of the Great Duchy of Lithuania. The purport of these confederacies was, an engagement to exert themselves in the defence of their ancient privileges, and the free exercise of their religion; professing, at the same time, however, the utmost loyalty to the King, and resolving to send a deputation to him to implore his protection. They even invited those of the Catholic communion, and all true patriots, to unite with them in maintaining the fundamental laws of the kingdom, the peace of religion, and the right of each one jointly with themselves. They claimed, by virtue of public treaties, the protection of the powers who were guarantees of their rights and liberties; namely, the Empress of Russia, and the Kings of Sweden, Great Britain, Denmark, and Prussia. Lastly, they protested, that they had no intention of acting to the detriment of the Roman-Catholic religion, which they duly respected; and only asked the liberty of their own, and the re-establishment of their ancient rights. The three cities of Thorn,

Elbing, and Dantzick, acceded to the confederacy of Thorn on the 10th of April; as did the Duke and Nobles of Courland to that of Sluck on the 15th of May.

The Empress of Russia, and King of Prussia, in the mean time, continued to issue forth new declarations in favour of the Dissidents, and the Russian troops in Poland were gradually augmented to 30,000 men. Great numbers of other confederacies were also formed in different parts of the kingdom. These at first took little part in the affairs of the Dissidents: they complained only of the administration of public affairs, into which they alledged that innovations had been introduced, and were therefore for some time called *Confederations of Malcontents*. All these confederacies published manifestoes, in which they recommended to the inhabitants to quarter and treat the Russian troops as the defenders of the Polish liberties.

The different confederacies of malcontents formed in the twenty-four districts of Lithuania, united at Wilna on the 22d of June; and that general confederacy re-established Prince Radzivil, who had married the King's sister, in his liberty, estates, and honour, of which he had been deprived, in 1764, by the states of that duchy. On the 22d of June, Prince Radzivil was chosen Grand Marshal of the General Confederacy of all Poland, which then began to be called the *National Confederacy*, and was said to be composed of 72,000 noble-men and gentlemen.

This general confederacy took such measures as appeared most proper for strengthening their party. They sent to the several waywodies of the kingdom, requiring their compliance with the following articles: 1. That all the gentlemen who had not signed the confederacy should do it immediately; 2. That all the courts of justice should subsist as formerly, but not judge any of the confederates; 3. That the marshals of the crown should not pass any sentence without the participation of at least four of the confederates; and, 4. That the marshals of the crown and the treasurers should be immediately restored to the possession of their respective rights.—The Catholic party in the mean time were not idle. The Bishop of Cracow sent a very pathetic and zealous letter to the dietines assembled at Warsaw on the 15th of August, in which he exhorted them to arm their nuncios with courage, by giving them orthodox and patriotic instructions, that they might not grant the Dissidents new advantages beyond those which were secured to them by the constitutions of the country, and treaties with foreign powers, &c. The Pope also sent briefs to the King, the Great Chancellor, the Noblese, Bishops of the kingdom, and to the Prince Primate, with such arguments and exhortations as were thought most proper to ward off the impending danger. Councils in the mean time were frequently held at the Bishop of Cracow's palace, where all the prelates at Warsaw assembled.

On the 26th of September 1767, the confederacy of Dissidents was united with the general confederacy of Malcontents in the palace of Prince Radzivil, who, on that occasion, expressed great friendship for the Dissidents. In a few days after, the Russian troops in the capital were reinforced, and a considerable body of them was posted at about five miles distance.

On the 5th of October an extraordinary diet was held; but the

affair

affair of the Dissidents met with such opposition, that it was thought necessary to adjourn the meeting till the 12th; during which interval, every expedient was used to gain over those who opposed Prince Radzivil's plan. This was, to appoint a commission, furnished with full power to enter into conference with Prince Repnin, the Russian ambassador, concerning the affairs of the Dissidents. Notwithstanding all the pains taken, however, the meeting on the 12th proved exceedingly tumultuous. The Bishops of Cracow and Kiow, with some other Prelates, and several Magnats, declared, that they would never consent to the establishment of such a commission; and at the same time spoke with more vehemence than ever against the pretensions of the Dissidents. Some of the deputies answered them with great warmth; which occasioned such animosities, that the meeting was again adjourned till the 16th.

On the 13th the Bishops of Cracow and Kiow, the Palatine of Cracow, and the Staroste Dolmski, were carried off by Russian detachments. The crime alledged against them, in a declaration published next day by Prince Repnin, was, That they had been wanting in their respect to the dignity of the Empress of Russia, by attacking the purity of her intentions towards the republic; though she was resolved to continue her protection and assistance to the general confederacy united for preserving the liberties of Poland, and correcting all the abuses which had been introduced into government, &c.

It was probably owing to this violent proceeding of the Russians, that Prince Radzivil's plan was at last adopted, and several new regulations were made in favour of the Dissidents. These innovations, however, soon produced a civil war, which at last ended in the ruin of the kingdom. In the beginning of the year 1768, a new confederacy was formed in Podolia, a province bordering on Turkey, which was afterwards called the *Confederacy of Bar*. The intention of it was, to abolish, by force of arms, the new constitutions, particularly those in favour of the Dissidents. The members of the new confederacy likewise expressed great resentment against the carrying away of the Bishop of Cracow, &c. and still detaining them in custody.

Podolia was reckoned the fittest place for the purpose of the confederates, as they imagined the Russians could not attack them there without giving umbrage to the Ottoman court. Similar confederacies, however, were quickly entered into throughout the kingdom: the clergy excited all ranks of men to exert themselves in defence of their religion; and so much were their exhortations regarded, that even the King's troops could not be trusted to act against these confederates. The Empress of Russia threatened the new confederates as disturbers of the public tranquillity, and declared, that her troops would act against them if they persisted. It was, however, some time before the Russian troops were considerably reinforced; nor did they at first seem inclined to act with the vigour which they might have exerted. A good many skirmishes soon happened between these two contending parties, in which the confederates were generally defeated. In one of these the latter being worsted, and hardly pressed, a number of them passed the Niester, and took refuge in Moldavia. This province had formerly belonged to Poland, but was now subject to the Grand Signior; the Russians, however, pursued their ene-

mies into Moldavia ; but in order to prevent any offence being taken by the Porte, Prince Repnin wrote to the Russian resident at Constantinople, to intimate there, that the conduct of the Russian colonel who commanded the party was quite contrary to the orders of his court, and that therefore he would be turned out of his post.

Great cruelty in the mean time was exercised against the Dissidents where there were not Russian troops to protect them. Towards the end of October 1769, Prince Martin Lubomirski, one of the Southern confederates, who had been driven out of Poland, and had taken shelter with some of his adherents among the mountains of Hungary, got a manifesto posted up on several of the churches of Cracow, in which he invited the nation to a general revolt, and assuring them of the assistance of the Ottoman Porte, with whom he pretended to have concluded a treaty. This was the beginning of hostilities between the Turks and Russians, which were not terminated but by a vast effusion of blood on both sides.

The unhappy kingdom of Poland was the first scene of this war, and in a short time was reduced to the most deplorable situation. In the end of the year 1768 the peasants of the Greek religion in the Polish Ukraine, and province of Kiow, took up arms, and committed the greatest outrages, having, as they pretended, been threatened with death by the confederates unless they would turn Roman-Catholics. Against these insurgents the Russians employed their arms, and made great numbers of them prisoners. The rest took refuge among the Haidamacks ; by whom they were soon joined, and in the beginning of 1769 entered the Ukraine in conjunction with them, committing every where the most horrid massacres. Here, however, they were at last defeated by the Polish troops, at the same time that several of the confederacies in Poland were severely chastised. Soon after the Chan of the Crim Tartars, having been repulsed with loss in an attempt on New Servia, entered the Polish territories, where he left frightful marks of his inhumanity upon some innocent and defenceless persons. This latter piece of conduct, with the cruelties exercised by the confederates, induced the Polish Cossacks of Bracław, and Kiowia, amounting to near 30,000 effective men, to join the Russians, in order to defend their country against these destroyers.—Matters continued much in the same way during the rest of the year 1769 ; and in 1770 skirmishes frequently happened between the Russians and confederates, in which the latter were almost always worsted ; but they took care to revenge themselves by the most barbarous cruelties on the Dissidents, where-ever they could find them. In 1770, a considerable number of the confederates of Bar, who had joined the Turks, and been excellently ill used by them, came to an accommodation with the Russians, who took them under their protection on very moderate terms.—Agriculture in the mean time had been so much neglected, that the crop of 1770 was very deficient. This encouraged a number of desperadoes to associate under the denomination of confederates, who were guilty of still greater excesses than those who had been under some kind of regulation. Thus a great part of the country was at last reduced to a mere desert, the inhabitants being either exterminated, or carried off to stock the remote Russian plantations, from whence they never could return.

In the year 1771, the confederacies, which seemed to have been extinguished, sprung up afresh, and increased to a prodigious degree. This was occasioned by their having been secretly encouraged and supplied with money by France. A great number of French officers engaged as volunteers in their service; who having introduced discipline among their troops, they acted with much greater vigour than formerly, and sometimes proved too hard for their enemies. These gleams of success proved at last their total ruin. The Russians were reinforced, and properly supported. The Austrians and Prussian troops entered the country, and advanced on different sides, and the confederates found themselves in a short time entirely surrounded by their enemies, who seemed to have nothing less in view than an absolute conquest of the country, and sharing it among themselves.

Before matters came to this crisis, however, the confederates formed a design of assassinating the King, on account of his supposed attachment to the Dissidents. As he was returning to his palace at Warsaw, November 3d 1771, about nine in the evening, it being then very dark, and he not attended by his usual guards, the coach was suddenly attacked, at the corner of the street, by six men on horseback, the principal of whom was Koczinski, an officer among the confederates. They fired their carbines and pistols into the carriage; after which they dragged out the King, and carried him off. Soon after they were joined by twenty-five of their associates; and not only got clear of the city, but reached a place called *Willanow*, six or seven English miles distant from the capital. All this time, however, the country was alarmed; cannon were repeatedly fired as signals; and parties of Russians, sent out in quest of the King, continually alarmed the conspirators with their shoots. At last Koczinski advised them to a separation as the only probable means of escaping the Russians, and his request being complied with, he by this means got the King into his own power, and that of four others only. These companions he found means to get rid of, by sending them away one by one to observe the motions of the pursuers. He then quitted the road, and dismounted; and, throwing himself at the King's feet, implored his pardon, and offered to save his life. After this they marched an hour and a half on foot through dismal woods and morasses, till they arrived at a hut; whence the King sent to the Russian General, and was conveyed to Warsaw early in the morning. He had received two wounds in his head, one from a ball, and the other from a sabre; and his escaping with life may be considered as one of the most extraordinary events recorded in history.

The affairs of this unhappy country continued for some time in the same miserable way. Almost the whole of it was reduced to a mere desert, at the same time that a treaty was talked of between the three powers, for dividing the whole kingdom among them. By this treaty it was said, that the Austrians were to have a great part of South Poland; the Russians, the Polish Ukraine, and a part of the Duchy of Lithuania; and the Prussians, that part called Polish Prussia.

A partition of this kind actually did take place. The King of Prussia, partly by treaty, and partly by encroachments, founded on antiquated claims and vague pretences, possessed himself of so much

of

of the kingdom, that the court of Petersburg thought proper to check his progress; the Austrians proceeded in the same manner; and at last the constitution of the kingdom was totally altered, by the appointing of a new assembly called a *Permanent Council*. This revolution took place on the 8th of August 1774. The Council was composed of forty members; and included three estates, the King, the Senate, and the Equestrian order. The members were to be chosen at the diets, by ballot, and their power to continue only from one diet to another. The King is always to be chief of the Council; the Senate to comprehend the great officers or ministry, and the members chosen from that body; and the Equestrian order to be as nearly equal as the odd number thirty-nine would permit. This Council composes four particular departments: the first is to take cognisance of all those concerns which usually came before the Marshals of the Crown, or of Lithuania; the second is charged with whatever relates to the police, and all the inferior departments are to bring in their reports to it; the third comprehends the military, the whole immediate power of which is vested in the Grand General, under the obligation of bringing in all his reports and accounts at stated times to be examined; the fourth have the care of correspondence with foreign powers.—At this time also the revenues of the King, which before did not exceed L. 100,000, were now increased to three times that sum. The republic also agreed to pay his debts, amounting to upwards of L. 400,000. She bestowed on him also, in hereditary possession, four starosties, or governments of castles, with the districts belonging to them, and reimbursed him of the money he had laid out for the state. It was also agreed, that the revenues of the republic should be enhanced to thirty-three millions of florins, (near two millions Sterling,) and the army should consist of 30,000 men.—Soon after the conclusion of the peace with Turkey, the Empress of Russia also made the King a present of 250,000 rubles, as a compensation for that part of his dominions which fell into her hands.

MUSCOVY,





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R U S S I A N E M P I R E

I N E U R O P E A N D A S I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1500 }	between	{ 23 and 65 East lon.
Breadth 1100 }		{ 47 and 72 North lat.

Divisions and Name. } ACCORDING to the most authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it consists of fifteen (Mr. Voltaire says sixteen) provinces, or governments; besides part of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, which were conquered from Sweden; also the Duchy of Courland in Poland, and great part of that ancient kingdom itself of which the Empress of Russia has now the entire disposal.

In surveying the Russian empire, we must also include all those new acquisitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia; the whole comprehending the Northern parts of Europe and Asia, stretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the West, to Kamtschatka and the Eastern ocean; and on the North, from the Frozen ocean to the forty-seventh degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caspian seas, Great Tartary, Chinese Tartary, and other unknown regions in Asia. The country therefore now comprised under the name of Russia, or the Russias, is of a greater extent than all the rest of Europe, or than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander, or both put together: the reader, however, is to observe, that the knowledge the public has of this empire, is but lately acquired; and is still so doubtful, that it is very difficult to fix even the limits between the European and Asiatic Russia. As to the names of Russia and Muscovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Russi, or Borussi, and the river Mosca, upon which the ancient capital Moscow was built; but of this we know nothing certain.

This

This great empire consists of thirty-one provinces.

Div.	Provinces.	Chief towns.	Div.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
North Provinces.	Lapland	Kola	Western Provinces.	Gr. Novogrod	Novogrod
	Semoida	Golatina		Russ. Finland	Wyburg
	Bellamorenkey	Kemi		Kexholm	Kexholm
	Meseem	Meseem		Kaleria	Notteburg
	Dwina	Archangel	Southern Provinces.	Ingria	Petersburg
	Syrianes	Kanrogod		Livonia	Riga
	Permia	Isma			Narva
	Rubeninski	Kargapol			Revel
	Belafeda	Vitegre			Dorpat
Middle Provinces.	Rezan, or Perellaf	Razenskoi			Pliskow
	Belozero	Belozero			Pernaw
	Wologda	Wologda		Smolensko	Smolensko
	Jeraslaf	Jeraslaf		Zernigof	Zernigof
	Tweer	Tweer		Seefsk	Seefsk
	Moscow	Moscow		Ukrain, or country of the old Cossacs.	Kio for Kiow
	Belgorod	Woronetz			
Eastern Provinces.	Bulgar	Bulgar			
	Kasan	Kasan			
	Czeremissi	Prolekarfa			
	Lit. Novogrod	Nife Novogr.			
	Don Cossacs	Denetfko			

Seas.] The seas of Russia are, the Ice-sea, or Frozen-ocean; the sea of Wygats, or Nova Zembla; the White-sea, and the Baltic, of which the gulph of Finland is part, upon the North and West; the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Azoph, on the South. Until the last war with Turkey, they were masters of the North coast of the Euxine sea; and still the old Cossacs of Russia have a communication with the Euxine sea, by the river Nieper, or Boristhenes, from whence they frequently issue in great numbers in their wicker boats, covered with skins, and invade the Turkish territories, bringing home thousands of unhappy wretches, whom they make slaves of.

Lakes.] There are lakes of vast extent in the North of Russia, viz. 1. The lake of Ladoga; 2. Onega; 3. The White lake; 4. Ilmen lake; 5. Worsero; and, 6. Pepus.

Rivers.] The rivers are, 1. The Tobol, which, rising in Bulgar, runs North, and joining the Irtis at Toboliski, the united stream obtains the name of Irtis to sixty-five degrees of North latitude; and then, uniting with the river Oby, carries the name of Oby till the united streams fall into the Frozen-ocean, opposite to Nova Zembla, dividing Europe from Asia. 2. The Mangasea, which runs from South to North, parallel to the Oby, and falls into the Frozen-ocean. 3. The Pezara, or Petzora, which, rising in Permia, runs from South to North, and falls into the Frozen-ocean. 4. The Dwina, which, rising in Wologda, runs North, and falls into the White sea, below

below Archangel. 5. The Wolga, formerly Rha, which, rising in Belozaro, runs South-East through European Russia, receiving the Rivers Moligo, Moscow, Kisma, Ocka, and Samar; then, bending its course still South-East, runs through Asiatic Russia, and, after a course of near 2000 miles, falls into the Caspian sea below Astracan, by several channels, being the largest and deepest river in this continent; and yet so landed up at the mouth, that great ships cannot pass from Astracan into the Caspian sea. 6. The river Don, formerly Tanais, which, rising in the middle of Russia, receives the Woronetz, and then runs South-East to Kamifinka, then turning South-West, falls into the sea of Azoph, or Palus Mæotis, receiving the Donetz above Azoph. 7. The Nieper, formerly Boristhenes, which, rising in the province of Moscow, runs South-West through Poland, then entering Muscovy again, and passing by Niof, runs South-East through the Ukraine, and then due South through Tartary, falls into the Euxine sea at Oczakow. 8. The lower Dwina, which, rising in the province of Moscow, runs West through Poland, and then, dividing Poland from Livonia, falls into the Baltic below Riga.

*Climate, Soil, Productions, Animal, } In the Southern parts of
Vegetable, and Mineral. }* Russia, or Muscovy, the longest day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas in the most Northern, the sun is seen in Summer two months above the horizon.

The North-East winds blow much colder than any other in the beginning of the Winter, coming over vast tracts of snow and ice; but when the snows are fallen in the South, then the South winds are as cold as the North.

The snow is the natural manure of Russia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miserably fed; the soil produces a vast number of mushrooms which the poor use for their subsistence; this country yields great quantities of oak and fir timber; as well as rhubarb, flax, hemp, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewise extract a spirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

No country produces so much honey and wax as Russia; some make their fortunes by these articles. They cut down several hundred trees in the forests, and, dividing the trunks of the trees into several parts, bore them hollow, stopping them up at both ends, only leaving a little hole for the bees to go in; every man that cuts down and prepares these trees, has a property in them by the laws of the country; nor can the bears come at the honey, tho' they are perpetually in search of it.

That a great part of Russia was populous in former days, is not to be disputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture; and supplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of saw-dust and a preparation of fish-bones. Peter the Great, and his successors, down to the present empress, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and tho' the soil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vast fertility in

some provinces, bids fair to make grain as common in Russia as it is in the Southern countries of Europe. The vast communications, by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, serve to supply one province with those products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are plentiful in Russia, and the people are daily improving in working them.

The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire, it is a very ravenous creature, and said to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree forests. The hyenas, bears, wolves, foxes, &c. afford their furs for cloathing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes, and ermine, are more valuable in Russia than elsewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almost the only beasts of burden known in many parts of Russia. Czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horses for war and carriages; but those employed in the ordinary purposes of life are but small; as are their cows and sheep.

The Russians are well provided with sturgeon, cod, salmon, and belagas; the latter resembles a sturgeon, and is from twelve to fifteen feet in length; its flesh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the sturgeon and the belaga, the Russians make the famous caviar; so much esteemed for its richness and flavour, that it is often sent in presents to crowned heads.

Traffic and Manufactures.] By the best and surest information, the annual exports of Russia at present amount to 4,000,000 of rubles; and her imports do not exceed 3,000,000; so that the balance of trade is yearly 225,000l. sterling in her favour. This calculation, however, is subject to many uncertainties.

The productions and exports, of the country in general, are many, and valuable; viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, sail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, ising-glass, lintseed-oil, pot-ash, soap, feathers, train-oil, hogs bristles, musk, rhubarb, spermaceti, caviar, castor, and other drugs; timber, and also raw silk from China and Persia.

Her foreign commerce is much increased since her conquests from Sweden, especially of Livonia and Ingria; and since the establishing of her new emporium of Petersburg, whereby her naval intercourse with Europe is made much more short and easy.

Russia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, silks, cotton, gold, &c. To Bochara, near the river Oxus, in Tartary, Russia sends her own merchandize, in return for Indian silks, curled lamb-skins, and ready money; and also from the annual fair at Samarcand: she likewise trades to Persia, by Astracan, crosses the Caspian sea, for raw and wrought silk.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White sea, was the only port of naval communication which Russia had with the rest of Europe; but it was subject to a long and tempestuous voyage. This town is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth: built all of wood, except the exchange, which is of stone. Notwithstanding the decrease of the trade of Archangel, by building Petersburg, it still exports a considerable quantity of merchandize.

Inhabitants,

Inhabitants, Manners, and Customs.] Mr Voltaire is, perhaps, the first author who has attempted to give an authentic account of the population of Russia, and has done it upon very good grounds, by producing a list taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation, or poll-tax, and which amounted to 6,646,390. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, nor boys born between the making of one register of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads subject to be taxed, including women and girls, we shall find near 20,000,000 of souls. To this account may be added 350,000 soldiers, and 200,000 nobility and clergy; and foreigners of all kinds, who are likewise exempted from the poll-tax; as also (says Mr Voltaire) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely, Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, Carelia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Cossacs, the Calmucs, and other Tartars; the Samojedes, the Laplanders, the Ostiaks, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this list. Upon the whole, this writer does not exaggerate, when he affirms, that the inhabitants of Russia do not amount to fewer than 24,000,000.

The Russians, properly so called, are in general a personable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, especially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from those of the English or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. The eye-sight seems to be defective, occasioned, probably, by the snow, which for so long a time of the year is continually present to their eyes. Their officers, and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valour; but in the late war with the king of Prussia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, let it be ever so severe; and on such occasions they appear to be void of the sensations to which other people are subject, especially in the meanness of their repasts, and hardness of their fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Russians were barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness; no fewer than 4000 brandy shops have been reckoned in Moscow. Not only the common people; but many of the boyars, lived in a continued state of idleness and intoxication; and the most complete objects of misery and barbarity presented themselves upon the streets, while the court of Moscow was by far the most splendid of any upon the globe. The Czar and the grandees dressed after the most superb Asiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carlisle, in the account of his embassy, says, that he could see nothing but gold and precious stones in the robes of the Czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of those, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, little better than beasts of burden to support the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Russians, before his days, had not a ship upon their coasts. They had no conveniencies

for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no places of public diversion; and they entertained a sovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At present, the French or English gentlemen may make a shift to live as comfortably and sociably in Russia, as in any other part of Europe. Their stoves which they make use of, diffuse a more equal and genial warmth than our grates and chimnies, though it doth not by any means appear that a room heated in this way is wholesome to breathe in, and, was it not for the extreme rigour of the climate, would undoubtedly bring on pestilential diseases. Their polite assemblies have, since the accession of the present empress, been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient usages remain, but such as are of public utility, and adapted to the nature of their country. It is, however, to be observed, that notwithstanding the severity of Peter, and the prudence of succeeding governments, drunkenness still continues among all ranks; nor are even priests or ladies ashamed of it on holidays.

Dress.] People of distinction in Russia now dress, as nearly as the climate will admit, after the English and French manner. The common people are clothed with long coats, made of drest sheep skins, with the wool towards their bodies. These are admirably adapted to the climate, and cost only nine shillings. They also use a coarse cloth, in which they swaddle their legs and feet; this is secured by a cord of reeds, their sandals being also of the same material. Their caps are lined with fur, and cover their ears and necks as well as their heads. They wear sashes round their waist, and double gloves, one of woolen and the other of leather, which take in the hand without any distinction, except the thumb; and these are also an essential part of their cloathing. The women, besides their petticoats, wear sheep skins as well as the men. This, or what comes very near it, is the general dress of all the Northern nations of Europe and Asia.

Funerals.] The Russians entertain many fantastic notions with regard to the state of departed souls. After the dead body is drest, a priest is hired to pray for his soul, to purify it with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water, while it remains above ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by the bishop and another clergyman, as the deceased's passport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin, the company return to the deceased's house; where they drown their sorrow in intoxication; which lasts, among the better sort, with a few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a priest every day says prayers over the grave; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer, in his long journey, to the place of his destination after this life.

Punishments.] The Russians are remarkable for the barbarity and variety of their punishments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers

robbers, upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death, hundreds, nay, thousands at a time. The single and double knoute were lately inflicted upon ladies, as well as men of quality. Both of them are execruciating, but in the double knoute, the hands are bound behind the prisoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the dislocation of both his shoulders; and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner, with a hard throng, cut from a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it should cease. Another barbarous punishment practised in Russia is, first boring the tongue of the criminal through with a hot iron, and then cutting it out; and even the late empress Elizabeth, though she prohibited capital punishments, was forced to give way to the necessity of these tortures. From these particulars, many have concluded that the feelings of the Russians are different from those of mankind in general.

Travelling.] Among the many conveniences introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, the Russians, they travel in sledges drawn by rein-deer, when the snow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts, horses draw their sledges; and the sledge-way, towards February, becomes so well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the sledges, in which they travel night and day; so that they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, such as that between Petersburg and Moscow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majesty, in her journies, is drawn in a house, which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniencies, for four people, by twenty-four post-horses; and the house itself is fixed on a sledge.

Cossacs, and other Nations, subject to Russia.] Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Russian dominions, now live in fixed houses, and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Russian armies; but they are now found excellent foldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both sides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Zeremisses and Morduars; a peaceable industrious people. The Baskirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Cascan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Calmucs occupy the rest of this tract to Altracan and the frontiers of the Usbecs; and in consideration of certain presents they receive from her imperial majesty, they serve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends as foes.

The Cossacs, who now make a figure in the military history of Europe, were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukraine as a militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there established a colony. They were soon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced

reduced Asoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in ashes. They next put themselves under the protection of the Russians, built Circasky, on an island in the Don; and their possessions, which consisted of thirty-nine towns on both sides that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. They there lived in a fruitful country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects to the Czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They professed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Cossacs approaches very near to the ideas we form of that of the ancient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nation chuse a chief, whom they call Hauptman, and he resides at Cirkaska; but this choice is confirmed by the Czar; and the hauptman holds his authority during life. He acts as a superior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a separate commonwealth, governed by its own hauptman, who is chosen annually. They serve in war, in consideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have several times rebelled, for which they suffered severely under Peter the Great. But the Russian yoke was so much easier than that of the Poles, that in 1654 the Cossacs of the Ukraine put themselves likewise under the protection of Russia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their hauptman, Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himself unable to fulfil the magnificent promises he had made to Charles. He brought over, however, some of the Zaporovian Cossacs, who are settled about the falls of the river Nieper, but most of them were cut in pieces.

The Russians were formerly noted for so strong an attachment to to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign parts; but the Russian nobility, besides those who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majesty even interests herself in the education of young men of quality, in the knowledge of the world, and foreign services, particularly that of the British fleet. The Kamtchadales seem to be of Tartar original; and, before they were humanized, their appearance and manners partook strongly of those of the Esquimaux in North America. The best account we have of Kamptchatka is from Mr Steller and Mr Krasneninoff, the latter of whom published their discoveries, under the sanction of the Peterburg academy, but it is not to be doubted that many curious and interesting discoveries have been made during the late voyage by captains Cook and Clark.

The Siberians, or more properly Tartars, inhabiting an unknown extent of country in the Northern parts of Asia, are now subjects of Russia, and whose usages deserve to be mentioned; but we know less of them than we do of the Kamtchadales. Many of them are still gross Pagans; and their manners were so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and

and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living; and, according to the latest accounts, Nature has been so kind to the country, that an exile to Siberia will hereafter be but a very slight punishment.

Religion.] The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to be discussed here. It is sufficient to say, that they deny the pope's supremacy; and though they disclaim image-worship they retain many idolatrous and superstitious customs. Their churches are full of pictures of saints whom they consider as mediators. They observe a number of fasts, so that they live half the year very abstemiously; an institution which is extremely convenient for their soil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the sacraments and Trinity. They oblige their bishops, but not their priests, to celibacy. Peter the Great broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch, and the great clergy. He declared himself the head of the church; and preserved the subordinations of metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops. After establishing this great political reformation, he left his clergy in full possession of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reserved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal catastrophe. Before his days, an incredible number of both sexes were shut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to abolish those societies. The abuses of them, however, are in a great measure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female, a nun, till she is fifty; and even then not without the express permission of their superiors. The priests have no fixed income, but depend for subsistence on the benevolence of their hearers.

The conquered provinces retain the exercise of their own religion; but such is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its subjects are Mahometans, and more of them Pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity.

Language.] Their language is a mixture of the Slavonian and Polish. The Russian Pater-noster is as follows: *Otſhe naſh, iſe eſi na nebeſech; da ſuetiſſia imia tvoie; da pridet tſarſtvie tvoie; ta budet viola tvoia jako na nebeſi i na zemli; chleb naſh naſuſchnii dajid namdnies; i oſtavinam dolgi naſha jakoie i mi oſtavljaem doljnicoin naſhim; i ne vo-vedi n; nas vo iſouſchenie, no iſbavi nas ot lucaog o. Amen.*

Their characters ſomething reſemble the Greek; they have thirty-fix letters. Their æra was from the creation of the world until the year 1700, and their year began on the 1ſt of September; but Czar Peter I. then ordered their year to begin on the 1ſt of January, and the birth of Chriſt to be their æra.

Learning and learned Men.] The Ruſſians, hitherto, have made but an inconfiderable appearance in the republic of letters: but the great encouragement given by their ſovereigns of late, in the institution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs,

proofs, that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities; and the progress which learning has made in that empire since the beginning of this century, is an evidence, that the Russians are as capable as any of their neighbours to shine in the arts and sciences.

Universities.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moscow; one for classical learning and philosophy, the second for mathematics, and the third for navigation and astronomy. To these he added a dispensary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of some able German chymists and apothecaries, who furnish medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. And within these few years, Mr de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empress Elisabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, founded an university in this city. The present empress has also founded an university at Peterburgh, and invited some of the most learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good salaries; also a military academy, where the young nobility and officers sons are taught the art of war.

Antiquities and Curiosities, } This country, tho' but lately, and
Natural and Artificial. } indeed scarce yet emerged from barbarism, can, however, produce many stupendous monuments of the public spirit of her sovereigns; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great for the benefit of commerce. We are told, that the great bell of Moscow, the largest in the world, weighs 160 tun, is nineteen feet high, and twenty-three in diameter. It was cast in the reign of the empress Anne; but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broke out of it; so that it lately lay in a manner useless. The building of Peterburgh, and raising it of a sudden from a few fishing-huts, to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps, a curiosity hardly to be paralleled since the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The same may be said of the fortrefs of Kronstadt, in the neighbourhood of Petersburg, which is almost impregnable. This fortrefs and city employed, for some years, 300,000 men, in laying its foundations, and driving piles night and day. The whole plan, with a very little assistance from some German engineers, was drawn by the emperor's own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raised to his people, at the time when they could not be said to have possessed a ship in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he wrought in person in all those amazing works, with the same assiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

Cities, Towns, Palaces, and other Buildings.] Petersburg naturally takes the lead in this division. It lyes at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its situation, by being informed that it stands on both sides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland Gulph. In the year 1703, this city consisted of two small fishing-huts, on a spot so swampy, that the ground was formed into nine islands; by which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are still divided. It extends about six miles every way; and contains every structure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, reve-

nue,

nue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the most celebrated cities in Europe; but the latest authors differ widely as to its population. Voltaire tells us, that it is said to contain at present 400,000 souls, Hanway 250,000, and Busching 100,000. The new Summer palace is reckoned one of the finest pieces of architecture in Europe. In the middle of the city (which has neither gates nor walls) is a strong, beautiful fort; and the admiralty and dock-yards are likewise well fortified.

As Petersburg is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the Summer time is surprising. In Winter, 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. It contains twenty Russian, and four Lutheran churches, besides those of the Calvinists and Roman-Catholics; and is the seat of a university, and several academies. Petersburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conquests from the Swedes.

The city of Moscow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it still continues considerable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It stands, on the river from whence it takes its name, in lat. 55-45, about 1414 miles North-East of London; and though the streets are not regular, it contains such a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and streams, that it seems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. Neither Voltaire nor Busching gives us any satisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, and each quarter inhabited by a different order or profession. Busching speaks of it as the largest city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on. It is generally agreed, that Moscow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three palaces or squares. Busching makes the merchants exchange to contain about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city displays a greater contrast than Moscow, of magnificence and meanness in building. The houses of the inhabitants in general are miserable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are spacious and lofty. The Krimlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the most superb structures in the world: it lies in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleasure-house, and stables, a victualing-house, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges and other offices. All the churches in the Krimlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt or covered with silver: the architecture is in the Gothic taste; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a silver branch with forty-eight lights, said to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would scarcely suffice to recount the other particulars of this city's magnificence. Its sumptuous monuments of the great Dukes and Czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, the chancery, are noble structures. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the Virgin Mary, in the Krimlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is

seen at the famous Holy House of Loretto in Italy. Mr Voltaire says, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moscow at the time he was building Petersburg; for he caused it to be paved, adorned with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

Constitution, Law, and distinction of Rank.] The constitution and laws of Russia, like those of other arbitrary governments, rest in the breast of the Sovereign. The subjects, however, had some general rules to guide them, both in criminal and civil matters, which always took place, when no interposition of government happened to set them aside. The Czar Alexis, who mounted the throne in 1645, drew up an imperfect code of laws: but he never could sufficiently enforce them, being perpetually engaged in war, either foreign or domestick; so that they became in a manner useless or unknown. Even Peter the Great never could bring his subjects into such a state of civilization as to trust them with any law but his own will. In matters of importance, such as the trying and condemning his son to death, he generally appointed a commission, with some person of distinction at its head, for trying them; but this was only to save the appearance of despotism; for the commissioners always pronounced judgment according to what they knew to be his sentiments. The late empress, Elizabeth, made a law, but it only bound herself, that she would suffer no capital punishments to be insisted in her reign. Were not the fact undoubted, posterity could not believe, that one of the most extensive governments in the world could subsist in peace and tranquillity within itself, under such an exception of justice. The truth is, the dreadful punishments incurred by delinquents, though not capital, were sufficient to deter them.

The Russian monarchy is hereditary, but after a particular mode; for the senate of the great lords make themselves judges of the proximity of blood in their sovereigns. The present empress was raised to the throne, by being wife to the emperor, and mother of his son; In 1768, the assembled deputies from all the districts and provinces of her dominions, so as to form, in effect, a Russian parliament; and when they met, they were presented with instructions, which contained her ideas of distributive justice; but the code which has been drawn up, has not yet been made public, at least to the rest of Europe.

The distinctions of rank form a considerable part of the Russian constitution. The late empresses took the title of Autocratix, which implies that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes, or knazeys, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were sovereigns upon their own estates, till they were reduced by the Czar; but they still retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knèzes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Those titles, however, so often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the present and late empresses have introduced among their subjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other distinctions of nobility that are common to the rest of Europe.

A senate, composed of the most respectable members of the empire,

pire, still subsists in Russia; but though the empress treats the institution with the highest regard and deference, and submits the greatest concerns of her empire to their deliberation, yet they are no better than her privy council: and they seldom or never give her any advice, but such as is conformable to her pleasure.

Revenue, Army, and Expences.] Nothing certain can be said concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at present, far superior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vast exertions for promoting industry, made by his successors, must have greatly added to their income, which can scarcely be reckoned at less than four millions sterling annually. When the reader considers this sum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, he will find it a very considerable revenue. That it is so, appears from the vast armies maintained and paid by the late and present empress, in Germany, Poland, and elsewhere, when no part of the money returned to Russia; nor do we find that they received any considerable subsidy from the houses of Bourbon and Austria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. Mr Voltaire says, that in 1735, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the sum-total amounted to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to about 4s. 6d. sterling.) This income was at that time sufficient to maintain 339,500, as well sea as land forces. The other expences, besides the payment of the army and navy of her present majesty, the number and discipline of which are at least equal to those of her greatest predecessors, is very considerable. Her court is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants splendid; and the encouragement she gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and useful discoveries, costs her vast sums, exclusive of her ordinary expences of state.

Some of the Russian revenues arise from monopolies; which are often necessary in the infancy of commerce. The most hazardous enterprize undertaken by Peter the Great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in seizing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and necessity required that the greatest part of them should be restored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his excessive power. The clergy, indeed, are taxed in Russia; but the pecuniary revenues of the crown arise from taxes upon estates, bagnios, bees, mills, fisheries, and other particulars.

The standing army of Russia is computed at near 250,000 men; besides which, the Czar can always assemble a body of 40 or 50,000 Calmucks, Cossacs, and other irregular-troops; and on any particular emergency that number can be doubled. Their fleet of late hath been very much increased, and is still increasing, but no certain accounts can be given of its present strength.

The Russian armies are raised at little or no expence †, and while

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† On my return (says a late traveller through Russia) from Tobolsky to St Petersburg, going into a house where I was to lodge, I found a father chained

in their own country, subsisted chiefly on provisions furnished them by the country people, according to their internal valuation.

History.] It is evident, both from ancient history and modern discoveries, that some of the most neglected parts of the Russian empire at present, were formerly rich and populous. In latter times, the Asiatic part of Russia bordered with Samarcand, in Tartary, once the capital, under Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire than any mentioned in history; and nothing is more certain, than that the conquest of Russia was among the last attempts made by the former of these princes. We cannot, with the smallest degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the history of Russia, higher than the introduction of Christianity, which happened about the tenth century; when a princess of this country, called Olha, is said to have been baptized in Constantinople, and refused the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimisces, in marriage. This accounts for the Russians adopting the Greek religion, and part of their alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, sent priests to baptize the Russians, who were for some time subject to the see of Constantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards resigned all their authority over the Russian church; and its bishops erected themselves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that till the year 1450, the princes of Russia were but very little considered, being chiefly subjected by the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Iwan Basilides, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the Duke of Great Novogorod; from whom he is said to have carried 300 cart loads of gold and silver.

His grandson, the famous John Basilowitz II. subdued the kingdoms of Casan and Astracan Tartary, in Asia, and annexed them to the Russian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of some of his finest provinces, particularly Livonia and Ekthonia, to put themselves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the sovereign of Russia took the title of Welike Knez, *i. e.* great prince, great lord, or great chief; which the Christian nations afterwards rendered by that of great duke. The title of Tzar, or as we call it, Czar, was added to that of the Russian sovereigns, but it seems to have been of Persian or Asiatic original; because at first it was applied only to Casan, Astracan, and the Asian Siberia, though some think it came at first from the Romans, and is only a corruption of the word Cæsar. Upon the death of John Basilowitz, the Russian succession was filled up by

chained to a post in the middle of his family: by his cries, and the little regard his children paid to him, I imagined he was mad; but this was by no means the case. In Russia, people who are sent to raise recruits go through all the villages, and pitch upon the men proper for the service, as butchers, in all other parts, go into the folds to mark the sheep. This man's son had been selected for the service, and made his escape without the father's knowledge; the father was made a prisoner in his own house; his children were his goalers, and he was in daily expectation of receiving his sentence. I was so much shocked with this account, and with the scene I beheld, that I was forced to seek another lodging immediately.

by a set of weak cruel princes, and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, according to Voltaire, assassinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and usurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had escaped from his murderers; and with the assistance of the Poles, and a considerable party, he drove out the usurper, and seized the crown himself. The imposture was discovered as soon as he came to the sovereignty, and he was murdered. Three other impostures started up one after another.

For a long time the Russians were immersed in a despicable state of ignorance. Their country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes; but was at length delivered by the good sense of the boyars, impelled by their despair, as late as the year 1613. The independency of Russia was then on the point of being extinguished. Uladislaus, son to Sigismund II. of Poland, had been declared Czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was such, that it produced a general rebellion of the Russians, who drove the Poles out of Moscow, where they had for some time defended themselves with unexampled courage. Philaretus, archbishop of Rostow, whose wife was descended of the ancient sovereigns of Russia, had been sent ambassador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Russian tyrants; and there he was detained prisoner, under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled against Uladislaus. The boyars met in a body; and such was their veneration for Philaretus and his wife, whom the tyrant had shut up in a nunnery, that they elected their son Michael, a youth of fifteen years of age, to be their sovereign. The father being exchanged for some Polish prisoners, returned to Russia; and being created patriarch by his son, he reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and success. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladislaus upon the throne, and likewise the claims of a brother of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden; but submitted to young Michael without any terms. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Russia occasioned a war between those two people, which gave Michael a kind of breathing-time, and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects. Soon after the election of Michael, James I. of England sent, at his invitation, Sir John Meyrick, as his ambassador to Russia, upon some commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain sum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predecessors. The English court however, was so ignorant of the affairs of that country, though a Russian company had been then established at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the Czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of Great Duke and Lord of Russia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which shews him to have been not only well acquainted with the interests of his own subjects, but the laws and usages of nations. Before we take leave of Michael, who survived his father, we shall mention the modes of the Czar's nuptials, which we could not introduce into the miscellaneous customs of their subjects, and which are as follow: His Czarish majesty's intention to marry being known, the most celebrated beauties of his dominions were sent for to court, and there entertained. They were visited

visited by the Czar, and the most magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by sending her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The rest of the candidates were then dismissed to their several homes, with suitable presents. The name of the lady's father, who pleased Michael, was Strefchenn; and he was ploughing his own farm, when it was announced to him that he was father-in-law to the Czar.

Alexis succeeded his father Michael, and was married in the same manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolensko, Kiow, and the Ukraine; but was unfortunate in the wars with the Swedes. When the Grand Signior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded some possessions from him in the Ukraine, his answer was, "that he scorned to submit to a Mahometan dog, and that his scymitar was as good as the Grand Signior's sabre." He attempted to draw up a code of laws for the civil government of his subjects, which is said to be still in being. He cultivated a polite correspondence with the other powers of Europe; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered his ambassadors not to kiss the Pope's toe. He subdued a chief of the Don Cossacs, named Stenko Rasin, who endeavoured to make himself king of Astracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherants, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and silk manufactures into his dominions: and instead of putting to death or enslaving his Lithuanian, Polish, and Tartar prisoners, he sent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. He died suddenly, at the age of forty-six, in the beginning of the year 1675, after shewing himself worthy of being father to Peter the Great.

Alexis left behind him three sons and a daughter, who was a woman of great intrigue and spirit. The names of the sons were Theodore, Iwan or John, and Peter, who was by a second marriage. Theodore mounted the throne, and shewed excellent dispositions for the improvements of his subjects; but his bodily infirmities prevented him from carrying them into execution. He died without any issue. His brother Iwan, being almost blind and dumb, and otherwise distempered, Theodore, before his death, named his younger brother, Peter, to the sovereignty; though then only ten years of age. This destination was displeasing to the ambitious princess Sophia; and she found means to excite a horrible sedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the standing army of Russia. Their excesses surpassed all description; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birthright; and exercised the government herself, with the greatest severity and inhumanity; for all the Russian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom she supposed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The instances given by Voltaire, of her inhuman administration, are shocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint sovereigns, and their sister their associate and co-regent. Her administration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durst she venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other insurgents. Finding this debility in her own person, she intended to have married prince Basil Galitzin, who is said to have been a man of sense and spirit, and some learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia,

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he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter was now about seventeen years of age, and asserted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moscow; and upon Peter's publishing aloud that a conspiracy had been formed by his sister to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or destroyed Sophia's party, and forced herself to retire to a monastery. Galitzin's life was spared, but his great estate was confiscated; and the following curious sentence was pronounced as his punishment, "Thou art commanded, by the most clement Czar, to repair to Kerga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majesty, out of his extreme goodness, allows thee three pence per day for thy subsistence." Upon the death of Iwan, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone.

It would far exceed the bounds prescribed in this work, to give even a summary detail of this great prince's actions. All therefore that is necessary in this place, is to give a general view of his power, and the vast reformation he introduced into his dominions.

Peter, towards the end of the last century, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealousy of his sister, associated himself with Germans and Dutch; the former for the sake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and the latter, for their skill in navigation, which he practised himself. His inclinations for the arts were encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmontese; and General Gordon, a Scotsman, disciplined the Czar's own regiment, consisting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raised a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exercises of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolences of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He set out as an attendant upon his own ambassadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inserted here. By working as a common ship-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation; and through the excellent discipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia; and at last he even exterminated, all but two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land; and the many defeats which he received, especially by Charles XII. at Narva, seemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battle he lost rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendship he shewed to Augustus, king of Poland, his ally, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank, distinct from merit; and he at last married, by the name of Catherine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier; because, after long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans, and to assist his counsels. Catherine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a common soldier in his armies. But mili-
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tary and naval triumphs, which succeeded one another after the decisive victory at Pultowa over Charles XII. were not the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity, as we have already mentioned, to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences: and, upon the whole, he made such acquisitions of dominion, even in Europe itself, that he may be said at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the most powerful prince of his age.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who was called the Czarewitz, and who, marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alledged, into some dangerous practices against his person and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter was, we can say nothing as to the justice of the charge. It was, undoubtedly, his will, that the young prince should be found guilty; but he died, as is said, of a fever, before his sentence was put into execution, in 1722. Peter then ordered his wife Catherine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be recognized as his successor; which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II. a minor, son to the Czarewitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. Peter died of the small-pox, in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished; and the duke of Holstein, son to his eldest daughter, was, by the destination of the late empress, entitled to the crown: but the Russians, for political reasons, filled their throne with Anne, duchess of Courland, second daughter to Iwan, Peter's brother; though her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburgh, was alive. Her reign was prosperous and glorious; and though she accepted of the crown under limitations that were derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, asserted the prerogative of her ancestors, and punished the aspiring Dolgoruki family, who had imposed upon her the limitations that they themselves might govern. She raised her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland, and was obliged to give way to many severe executions on his account. Upon her death, in 1740, John, the son of her niece, the princess of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric, of Brunswick Wolfenbüttele, was, by her will, entitled to the succession; but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princess of Mecklenburgh and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburgh to arrest Biron; who was tried and condemned to die, but was sent in exile to Siberia.

The administration of the princess Anne, of Mecklenburgh and her husband, was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of their German

German connections, disagreeable not only to the Russians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithstanding a prosperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princess Elizabeth, daughter by Catharine to Peter the Great, formed such a party, that in one night's time she was declared and proclaimed empress of the Russias; and the princess of Mecklenburgh, her husband, and son, were made prisoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be said to have been more glorious than that of any of her predecessors, her father excepted. She abolished, as has been already hinted, capital punishments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation till her time unknown in Russia: but at the same time she punished the counts Munich and Osterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late administration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden; and settled, as we have already seen, the succession to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the most equitable foundation. Having gloriously finished a war, which had been stirred up against her, with Sweden, she replaced the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holstein Gottorp, who was descended from her eldest sister, to be her heir. She gave him the title of Grand Duke of Russia; and soon after her accession to the throne she called him to her court, where he renounced the succession to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, by whom he had a son, who is now heir to the Russian empire.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expence of a large subsidy; but many political, and some, as is said, private persons, determined her to take part with the house of Austria against the king of Prussia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the success of the war, which was in disfavour of Prussia, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conquests were such, as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was saved only by her critical death, on January 5th 1762.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III. grand prince of Russia, and duke of Holstein Gottorp: a prince, whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of his Prussian majesty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have surmounted the effects of those peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Russia; but it is said he aimed at reformations in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. His memory has been likewise accused of certain domestick infidelities, which are too provoking for a spirited princess to bear. Whatever there may be in those suggestions; it is certain that an universal conspiracy was formed against him, and that he scarcely knew an interval between the loss of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived while under an ignominious confinement. That his conduct with regard to Prussia was

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not the sole cause of his deposition, seems pretty evident from the measures of his successor, who was his own wife, and now reigns by the title of Catherine II. That princeess, with regard to Prussia, trod in her husband's steps, and now follows the plan he chalked out. With regard to the other remarkable transactions of the Russians, and particularly the late war with the Turks, and dismemberment of Poland, see Turkey and Poland.

How far the rising greatness of the Russians may be consistent with the commercial interest of England, and the balance of power established at the expence of so much blood and treasure, is a question which we shall leave to the speculation of politicians.

S W E D E N.

PART of the ancient Scandinavia, which comprehends Sweden, Denmark, and Norway.

Boundaries.] Bounded on the North by Norwegian Lapland; on the South by the Baltic-sea, which divides it from Germany; on the East by Russia; and on the West by the seas called the Sound, and the Cattegat, or Scagerac, with the Dofrine mountains, which divides Sweden from Norway.

Situation and Extent.] Between the latitudes of 56 and 69 degrees North, about 800 miles; between the longitudes of 10 and 30 degrees East, about 500 miles. But in this extent is included the Baltic-sea, and the gulphs of Bothnia and Finland. The Baltic-sea, extending North about 240 miles, and about 200 miles East, makes about 48,000 square miles. The gulph of Bothnia, extending North about 300 miles, and about 80 miles broad, makes 24,000 miles. The gulph of Finland, extending East about 210 miles, and about 60 miles broad, makes 12,600 square miles; so that between 80 and 90 thousand square miles are to be deducted out of the amount of the first extent, besides what is possessed by Russia, conquered from Sweden.

Sweden is usually divided into seven provinces, *viz.* 1. Gothland; 2. Sweden Proper; 3. Lapland; 4. Finland; 5. the Isles; 6. Livonia; and 7. Ingria: the two latter now belong to Russia, being conquered by Peter the Great.





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The provinces, with their subdivisions and chief towns, are,

Pr.	Subdivisions.	Ch. towns.	Pr.	Subdivisions.	Ch. towns.
Gothland, South.	E. Gothland	Norkoping	Lapland and W. Bothnia.	Thorne Lap- mark	Tornea
	W. Gothland	Gottenberg		Kimi Lapm.	Kimi
	Smaland	Calmar		Lula Lapm.	Lula
	Wermeland	Carollstadt		Pithia Lapm.	Pithia
	Dalia	{ Daleburg		Uma Lapm.	Uma
	Schonen	{ Malmoe		W. Bothnia	Ratan
	Bleking	Lunden			
	Halland	{ Christianstadt			
Sweden Proper, Middle.		{ Corol croon	Finland.	E. Bothnia	Nakarleby
	Uplandia	Helmstadt		Cajania	Cajanburg
		{ Stockholm		Savoloxia	Noskimpe
		{ Upsal		Nyland	Helsingfort
	Sudermania	Nikopping		Travastia	Travaltius
	Westmania	Arosia		Finland Proper	{ Abo
	Nericia	Orebro			{ Raseburg
	Gestricia	Geste	Mees.	Gothland	Wisby
	Helsingia	Dillsbo		Oeland	Borkholm
	Dalecarlia	Hedmora		Aland	Casseholm
	Medelpedia	Judal		Rugen	Bergen
	Angermania	Hernofand			
	Jemptia	Refstundt			

Mountains.] The most noted are the Dofrine mountains, which run from North to South, between Sweden and Norway, for many hundred miles.

Lakes.] There are abundance of lakes in Sweden, of which the chief are, 1. The Mellar lake, on which Stockholm stands; 2. the Wener; 3. the Weter; 4. Cajania; and, 5. Jende.

Rivers.] There are few navigable rivers, but a multitude of torrents, which descend precipitately from their mountains. The chief rivers are, 1. Torpe, which rises in Norwegian Lapland, and, running from North to South, falls into the bottom of the Bothnic gulph. There are a great many iron and copper mines near the banks of it, and abundance of mills on the stream, and forges for working their metal. Their fishermen, who live on the banks of this river, exchange their salted and dried fish, furs, and skins, with their Southern neighbours, for cloathing and provisions, the soil of Lapland producing but little corn or vegetables. Instead of corn, they grind the white inward bark of fir-trees, of which they make a kind of bread; 2. the river Kimi; 3. Lula; 4. Pithia; and, 5. Uma, all fall into the same bay of Bothnia; 6. the river Dalecarlia, rises in the Dofrine mountains, and, running from West to East, falls into the Bothnic gulph between the provinces of Upland and Gestricia; 7. the river Kymen, in Finland, runs from North to South through the lake of Jende, and falls into the gulph of Finland.

Seas.] Their seas are the Baltic, and the gulphs of Bothnia and Finland,

Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the West of Sweden are the Cattegat sea and the Sound, a streight about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark. These seas have no tides, and are frozen up usually four months in the year; nor are they salt as the ocean, never mixing with it, because a current sets always out of the Baltic-sea into the ocean.

Climate and Seasons. } Summer, in this country, immediately suc-
Soil and Productions. } ceeds Winter, without any intervening
 Spring; and vegetation is more speedy than in Southern climates; for the sun is said to be sometimes so hot as to set forests on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of Winter, which is so intense, that the noses and extremities of the inhabitants are sometimes mortified; and, in such cases, the best remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected part with snow. The Swedes, since the days of Charles the XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenness of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in some places with great success. The soil is much the same with that of Denmark, and some parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in some vallies surprizingly fertile. The peasants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and some late accounts say, that they rear almost as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, and beans; and, in case of deficiency, the people are supplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In Summer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, producing strawberries, rasberries, currants, and other small fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarins, pine-apples, and the like high-flavour'd fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry seasons.

Minerals and Metals.] Sweden produces chrystals, amethysts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other fossils. The chief wealth of the country, however, arises from the mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron. The last mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering-mills, and smelting-houses. A kind of a gold mine has likewise been discovered in Sweden, but so inconsiderable, that from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,398 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. sterling. The first gallery of one silver mine is 100 fathoms below the surface of the earth; the roof is supported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners descend about forty fathoms to the lowest vein. This mine is said to produce 20,000 crowns a-year. The product of the copper mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vast taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other resources for the exigencies of state. Those subterraneous mansions are astonishingly spacious, and at the same time commodious for their inhabitants, so that they seem to form a hidden world; but at the same time the misery of the poor miners make us shudder with horror; the warm exhalations of the earth render it impossible to wear any clothes, at the same time that such unwholesome effluvia very much contribute to shorten their lives; while those miserable wretches, shut out for
 ever

ever from the light of the sun, are prohibited, under severe penalties, from speaking to one another, whistling, singing, or making the least noise; so that an everlasting silence reigns in these gloomy regions. To add to their miseries, they are devoured with vermin to such a degree, that Linnæus, as a natural historian, takes notice of the uncommon magnitude of the lice which breed upon them. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for some years the exports of iron from Sweden brought in 300,000*l.* sterling. Dr Busching thinks that they constituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It must, however, be observed, that the extortions of the Swedish government, and some other causes, have greatly diminished this manufacture in Sweden; so that the Swedes very soon must apply themselves to other branches of trade and improvements, especially in agriculture.

Animals.] Their horse and neat cattle are but small, but their horse are so hardy, that they will bear the longest journies, and are, on that account, esteemed more than the largest German horse. The wool of their sheep is coarse, and only fit for the cloathing of the common people. Their wild beasts are bears, wolves, elks, deers, foxes, hares, and squirrels, of which the three last turn white in Winter, as they do in Russia. They have plenty of tame and wild fowl. The reder is a fowl as big as a turkey, and the flesh much admired; the orras is as big as a hen; and there is a bird called the yerper, much like a partridge, and another beautiful bird of the size of a fieldfare, the feathers tipped with scarlet; there are few pigeons, the Northern countries abounding with birds of prey, such as eagles, hawks, &c. which destroy the breed. There are the same fish in their seas, and fresh waters, as we have; many of which they salt up, and these serve for part of their Winter provision.

Manufactures, Trade, Commerce, and chief Towns.] The Swedish commonalty subsist by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fishing. Their materials for traffic, are the bulky and useful commodities of masts, beams, deal-boards, other sorts of timber for shipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-ash, wooden utensils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fish.

Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden so late as the 16th century; for till that time they sold their own crude ore to the Hanse-towns, and bought it back again manufactured into utensils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they set up some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woolen, silk, soap, leather-dressing, and saw-mills. They have since had sugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of sail-cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs; of linen, allum, brimstone, paper, and gun-powder; vast quantities of copper, brass, steel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have also foundaries for cannon, forgeries for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flattening-mills, mills also for fulling, and for boring, and stamping; and of late they have built many ships for sale.

Certain towns in Sweden, being twenty-four in number, are called *flapple-towns*, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities

commodities in their own ships. Those towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the sea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to mine districts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increased their exports, and diminished their imports, most part of which arrive, or are sent off in Swedish ships; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation act, like that of the English.

Stockholm is a staple-town, and the capital of the kingdom; it stands about 790 miles North-East from London, upon six contiguous islands, in the lake Meler, and is built upon piles. The cattle, though commodious, and covered with copper, has neither strength nor beauty; but accommodates the royal court, and the national courts and colleges. The number of house-keepers who pay taxes are 60,000. Stockholm carries on the chief trade of the kingdom, and is furnished with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce (particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666l. 13s. 4d. sterling) that are common to other great European cities. The harbour is spacious, convenient, and large enough to hold 1000 sail of ships, and furnished with a quay, an English mile in length, to which the vessels may lye with their broad-sides. But there are numerous islands in the lake between Stockholm and the sea, and these make the course so zigzag, that several winds are necessary to carry them in and out; and which is much the worse for their having no tides, which would greatly assist the navigation.

Royal Stile.] The King's stile is, King of the Swedes, Goths, and Vandals, Great Prince of Finland, Duke of Schonen, Pomeran, &c.

Arms.] The king of Sweden bears quarterly. In the first and fourth azure, three crowns or, two in chief, and one in base for Sweden. In the second and third, barry argent and azure, a lion or, crowned gules, for Finland. For the crest, a crown royal, adorned with eight flowers, and closed by as many demicircles, terminating in a monde or. The supporters, two lions or, crowned with the same. The motto, *Dominus protector meus.*

Military and Marine Strength.] No country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be said to maintain a standing army, as their forces consist of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raised upon the nobility and gentry, according to their estates; and the infantry by the peasants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of soldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of sixty or seventy pound per annum is charged with a foot soldier, furnishing him with diet, lodging and ordinary cloaths, and about twenty shillings a-year in money; or else a little wooden house is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and pasturage for a cow, and ploughs and sows land enough to supply him with bread. When embodied, they are subject to military law, but otherwise to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be said, that every Swedish soldier has a property

perty in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 50,000 men; and Sweden formerly could have fitted out forty ships of the line; but of late years their ships, together with their docks, are suffered to run to decay.

Revenues and Species of Taxes.] The revenues of there public are computed to amount to about one million sterling per annum, arising from the crown lands and customs; the silver and copper mines; tythes which the crown deprived the clergy of at the reformation; Pole-money fines; stamped paper, and other duties payable on proceedings at law. The poll-tax, levied only on the peasants, is twelve-pence per head for all above sixteen and under sixty years of age. The greatest oppression exercised in the reign of Charles XII. was the compelling the people to bring in their silver and copper money, and exchange it for copper pieces of little intrinsic value; a piece not worth a halfpenny was valued at half a crown. The people were also obliged to take government notes and debentures, though no funds were assigned for the discharge of them: And it is said that, in the next reign, Baron Gortz was sacrificed to the fury of the people, as the author of these oppressions.

The pieces which went for dalers (or 20 pence sterling) are still current at one sixtieth of the value they were coined for; and, having on them the figures of Mars, Apollo, &c. they were, in derision, called Gortz's gods.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Customs.] There is a great diversity of characters among the people of Sweden; and what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they have been known to have different characters in different ages. At present, their peasants seem to have a heavy plodding race of men, strong and hardy; but without any other ambition than that of subsisting themselves and their families as well as they can; they are honest, simple, and hospitable; the mercantile classes are much of the same cast; but great application and perseverance is discovered among them all. One could form no idea that the modern Swedes are the descendents of those, who, under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through the most distant countries, and shook the foundations of the greatest empires. The intrigues of their senators dragged them to take part in the late war against Prussia; yet their behaviour was spiritless, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hospitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national interests. The dress of the common people is almost the same with that of Denmark, the better sort follow the French modes and fashions. The common diversions of the Swedes are skating, running races in sledges, and sailing in yachts upon the ice. They are not fond of marrying their daughters when young, as they have little to spare in their own life-time. The women go to plough, thresh out the corn, row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burthens, and do all the common drudgeries in husbandry.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] Among their curiosities may be reckoned

oned the mines of silver, copper, and iron, vastly deep and spacious, and have been wrought for many ages. Copper is so plentiful here, that they cover their great churches and palaces with it.

The iron mine of Taberg, in Smalandia, is very remarkable; where, in a mountainous, rugged country, is a level tract of very fine sand, out of which rises a mountain of about three English miles in circuit, and about 400 feet high; this mountain is mostly composed of iron ore, which is got out by blowing up the parts of the hill as it is wrought into; and, altho' it has been worked about 200 years, the hill appears to be scarcely diminished; what is most remarkable is, that such a mountain should all lye above the sand, in which is no ore; and that, in the interior fissures, the bones of stags and other animals are frequently found buried in the sand of the mountain.

Among their antiquities are many funeral inscriptions, rudely cut on rocks, or rough hewn stone, in the ancient Gothic language, and Runic character. They have also, in manuscript, a translation of the Evangelists into the Gothic language, 1300 years old, done by a bishop of the Goths in Thrace, of which this is the only manuscript copy.

The Swedish Laplanders, the most ignorant mortals in this part of the world, are charged with being conjurors, and are said to have done such feats by the magic art, as do not come at all short of miracles; that they will give the sailors such winds as they want in every part of their voyage; that they can inflict and cure diseases at any distance; and insure people success in their undertakings: and yet they are just such poor miserable wretches as used to be charged with witchcraft here, and cannot command so much as the necessaries of life; and, indeed, none but very credulous and ignorant people give credit to such fables at this day, tho' the whole world seems to have been bewitched in believing them formerly.

Language.] The language of the Swedes is a dialect of the Teutonic or ancient Dutch. Their Pater-noster is of the following tenor: *Fader war, sum ast i himmelen; belgate ward titt namyn; tillcomme titt rest; ski tin wilie sa pa jordenne som i himmelen; war dagligs brod jiff ossi dagh; och forlat oss wara skulder, sa som oss wi forlaton them ossi skyldige aro; och inledb oss icke i frelselse uthan frails oss i fra ondo; tii riket ar titt och machten och barligheten i ewigheet. Amen.*

Religion.] The Swedes were Pagans till the ninth century, when St Sigifred, a native of Britain, planted Christianity amongst them. The Reformation commenced here at the beginning of the 16th century, in the reign of Gustavus Erickson, who promoted it as well upon secular as religious views. The clergy were his enemies, and exceeding rich; whereupon he seized their lands, and united them to the crown, leaving the clergy but a slender maintainance.

Lutheranism is the only religion professed here; they tolerate no other. The Archbishop of Upsal is primate of Sweden, and the only Archbishop among the Lutherans, having seven suffragans under him. The Archbishop's revenues do not amount to more than 400 l. per annum; and the Bishop's revenues are proportionably small. There are eight or ten superintendants, with much the same power as bishops. Many of their clergy are mean people, the sons of peasants

ants and mechanicks; and have but a third of the tithes of the parishes, and a small portion of glebe, the rest having been seized by the crown; however, their clergy in general are in great esteem among the people, on account of their good lives; many of them are learned and ingenious men.

The chief differences between the Lutherans and Calvinists are, that the Lutherans have bishops and superintendants for the government of the church; whereas the Calvinist clergy are all equal, and govern their churches by a presbytery, from whence they are called Presbyterians with us. Another thing they differ in is the corporal presence in the sacrament of the Lord's supper. The Lutherans hold consubstantiation, viz. that, in taking the elements, the body and blood of Christ are consubstantiated and taken with them, not transubstantiated into the body and blood of our Saviour; whereas the Calvinists esteem this sacrament only a commemoration of our Saviour's death. Lastly, the Lutherans look upon a man as a free agent, that he can choose good or evil; whereas the Calvinists maintain, that every action of a man's life is decreed, and that he has no freedom of choice.

Archbishopricks and Bishopricks.] The only Archbishoprick in Sweden is that of Upsal. The bishopricks are those of Gottenburg, Lunden, Linkopping, Abo, Wexio, Stregnes, and Scara.

Universities.] Their universities are, Upsal, Lunden, and Abo; which are not much frequented by people of distinction.

Since the late introduction of arts and sciences into Sweden, and the establishment of a royal academy at Stockholm, the Swedes have produced many literary pieces of considerable merit; and there seems to be a spirit of encouragement exerted by their gentry, when application is made to them for undertakings really useful: The countenance shewn to Haselquist, to enable him to travel to Asia, and to Professor Kalm, to travel about North America, have been published; wherein are shewn the advantages which might thence accrue to their country. The voyage of Osbeck to China is full of observations and reflections worthy a philosopher.

Government.] The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free; but after various revolutions, which will be hereafter mentioned, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became despotick. He was succeeded by his sister, Ulrica; who consented to the abolition of despotism, and restored the states to their former liberties; and they, in return, associated her husband, the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, with her in the government. A new model of the constitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could scarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exercise of government, and even in the education of his own children.

Their government, by which we mean their political constitution, became of itself a study, occasioned by the checks which each order had upon another. It is sufficient to say, that though nothing can be more plausible, yet nothing is less practicable than the whole plan

of their distributive powers.—This was seen in the late deplorable state of Sweden, when its whole system of government was in danger of annihilation; which must have been the consequence, if some material alteration had not been introduced, for the king and people equally complained of the senate, with whom almost all the executive power was lodged.

This great event, which seems to have been admirably concerted by the king and some leading men, was accomplished without bloodshed, on the 19th of August 1772. The king's prerogative is greatly enlarged, but not so as to set him above the laws; nor does the new form of government bear any resemblance to an arbitrary monarchy, of which we shall give the following proofs from the state-papers lately published, relating to the change of the Swedish constitution:

"All has happily succeeded, and I have saved my parent-country, and myself, without injury to one single fellow-citizen. You are greatly mistaken if you believe here has been any other aim, but liberty and law. I have promised to govern a free people; this vow is more sacred, as it was voluntary; and what has happened shall never lead me from a purpose, which was not founded merely on necessity, but also on conviction!" *Speech of the King to the States.*

"Every form of government has its impression of human nature; and must be imperfect, uncertain, and changeable; and must have its beginning, its maturity, and its fall.—But as man, by an irregular manner of living, may himself shorten his life, so a nation, by abuse of its constitution, may hasten its own destruction. Happy that people, who, on such a change, preserve that liberty, which is the soul of civil society!" *Speech of the order of the Clergy.*

"Now, that upon your majesty's gracious summons, the order of the peasants, with the deepest submission, have leave to approach your majesty's throne, at the closing of this long, and in its event most fortunate assembly of the states, they remind themselves, with a most lively and loyal reverence, that the kingdom was at the very brink of its fall; and how it has been saved by your majesty's tender care and zealous protection; how the balance, till now wanted, in the constitution of the government, has been restored; and how the ancient Swedish liberty and independency have been again revived. A great event perfecting the earnest wishes of the Swedish people, and which raises the admiration of the whole world." *Speech of the order of the Peasants.*

The states of Sweden (who assembled formerly once in three years, but now only once in six) are formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility and gentry, clergy, burghers, and peasants. Each order sits in its own house, and has its own speaker; and each chuses a secret committee for the dispatch of business.

When the states are not sitting, the affairs of the public are managed by the king and senate. The members of the senate were formerly appointed by the states, and were no other than a committee of all the states. They are now selected and chosen by the king from among the Swedish nobility and gentry, and in ordinary are to consist of seventeen, including the high officers of state. Thus, upon the whole, the new government of Sweden bears a near resemblance to that

that of Great Britain; the king and senate to the British privy council; the diet or assembly of the states, to the British parliament.

History of Sweden.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of subduing the Roman empire, and all the Southern nations of Europe. We shall not here follow the wild romances of Swedish historians through the early ages. It is sufficient to say, that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy, as any we know of. Nor shall we dispute her being the paramount state of Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway,) and that she borrowed her name from one of her princes. The introduction of Christianity, however, by Ansgarius, bishop of Bremen, in 829, seems to present the first certain period of the Swedish history.

The history of Sweden, and indeed of all the Northern nations, even during the first ages of Christianity, is confused and uninteresting, and often doubtful; but sufficiently replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of consistency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it assumes an appearance more regular and consistent; and affords wherewith to recompence the attention of those who choose to make it an object of their studies. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly ascertained, or uniformly administered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether disregarded. The great lords possessed the most considerable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which consisted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itself in a very rude and imperfect state. The clergy, particularly those of a dignified rank, from the great respect paid to their character, among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an immense influence in all public affairs, and had obtained possessions of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. These two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the state, formed a council called the senate, which was master of all public deliberations. This system of government was extremely unfavourable to the national prosperity. The Swedes perished in the dissensions between their prelates and lay-baron, or between those and their sovereign; they were drained of the little riches they possessed, to support the indolent pomp of a few magnificent bishops; and what was still more fatal, the unlucky situation of their internal affairs exposed them to the inroads and oppression of a foreign enemy. These were the Danes, who, by their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themselves of the dissensions in Sweden, and to subject under a foreign yoke, a country weakened and exhausted by its domestick broils. In this deplorable situation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; sometimes under the nominal subjection of its own princes, sometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either case equally oppressed and insulted.

Towards the year 1374, Margaret, daughter of Valdenar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both these kingdoms. That princess, to the ordinary ambition of her sex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered

of their distributive powers.—This was seen in the late deplorable state of Sweden, when its whole system of government was in danger of annihilation; which must have been the consequence, if some material alteration had not been introduced, for the king and people equally complained of the senate, with whom almost all the executive power was lodged.

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her capable of conducting the greatest and most complicated designs. She has been called the Semiramis of the North; because, like Semiramis, she found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immense extent of territory: and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. She projected the union of Calmar, so famous in the North, by which these kingdoms were for the future to remain under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who should divide his residence between them all. Christian II. the last king of Denmark, who, by virtue of this agreement, was also king of Sweden, had an ambition to become absolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to affectionate this design no less barbarous, proved the destruction of himself, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to establish his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for massacring the principal nobility. This horrid design was actually carried into execution, November 8th 1510. Of all those who could oppose the despotick purposes of Christian, no one remained in Sweden, but Gustavus Vasa, a young prince, descended of the ancient kings of that country, and who had already signalized his arms against the king of Denmark. An immense price was laid on his head. The Danish soldiers were sent in pursuit of him; but by his dexterity and address, he eluded all their attempts, and escaped under the disguise of a peasant to the mountains of Dalicaria. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues, how, to prevent his discovery, he wrought in the brass-mines, how he was betrayed by those in whom he reposed his confidence; and, in fine, surmounting a thousand obstacles, engaged the savage but warlike inhabitants of Dalicaria to undertake his cause, to oppose and to conquer his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were mostly destroyed. Gustavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his person. He was created therefore, first administrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the universal consent, and with the shouts of the whole nation. His circumstances were much more favourable than those of any former prince, who had possessed this dignity. The massacre of the nobles had rid him of those proud haughty enemies who had so long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no less powerful and dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the North, the force with which they were supported, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious system of that country, and the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion was prohibited, under the severest penalties, (which have never yet been relaxed) in the year 1544. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, and when imposed by religious tyranny, of all governments the most wretched, Sweden in this manner became a regular monarchy. The happy effects of this change were soon visible. Arts and manufactures were established and improved; navigation and commerce began to flourish; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the rest of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties or deliberations.

Gustavus,

Gustavus, after a glorious reign, died in 1559; while his eldest son Eric was preparing to embark for England, to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who succeeded his father Gustavus Vasa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miserable and causeless jealousy of his brothers forced them to take up arms, and the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. His brother John succeeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Russia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-establish the Catholic religion in Sweden; but though he made strong efforts for that purpose, and even reconciled himself to the pope, he was opposed by his brother Charles, and the scheme proved ineffectual; John's son, Sigismund, was, however, chosen king of Poland in 1587, upon which he endeavoured again to restore the Roman Catholic religion in his dominions, but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to king John, was chosen administrator of Sweden; and being a strenuous Protestant, his nephew, Sigismund, endeavoured to drive him from the administratorship, but without effect; till at last, he and his family were excluded from the succession to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigismund, who was himself a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Russia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Gustavus Adolphus, though then a minor, and heir-apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the states, though then only in his eighteenth year. Gustavus, soon after his accession, found himself, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Russians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite disadvantages; all which he surmounted. He narrowly missed being master of Russia; but the Russians were so tenacious of their independency, that his scheme was baffled. In 1617, he made a peace, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with a sum of money besides.

The ideas of Gustavus began now to extend. He had seen a vast deal of military service, and he was assisted by the councils of La Gardie, one of the best generals and wisest statesmen of his age. His troops, by perpetual war, had become the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe; and he carried his ambition farther than historians are willing to acknowledge. The princes of the house of Austria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterprizing spirit, and supported his ancient implacable enemy Sigismund, whom Gustavus defeated; and in 1627, he formed the siege of Dantzick, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vistula, added so much to his military character, that the Protestant cause placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the house of Austria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the most rapid and wonderful successes: even the mention of each would exceed our bounds. It is sufficient to say, that after taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he

he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburgh, defeated the famous Count Tilly, the Austrian general, who was till then thought invincible; and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenstein, another Austrian general of equal reputation, was appointed to command against Gustavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen, after gaining a battle; which, had he survived, would probably have put a period to the Austrian greatness.

The amazing abilities of Gustavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared so fully as after his death. He left behind him, a set of generals, trained by himself, who maintained the glory of the Swedish army with most astonishing valour and success. The names of Duke Bernard, Bannier, Torstenson, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, never can be forgotten in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what course Gustavus would have pursued, had his life been prolonged, and his successes continued; but there are the strongest reasons to believe that he had in his eye somewhat more than the relief of the Protestants, and the restoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor, Oxenstiern, was as consummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Christina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with such success, that she in a manner dictated the peace of Westphalia, which threw the affairs of Europe into a new system.

Christina was but six years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court Descartes, Salmasius, and other learned men; to whom she was not, however, extremely liberal. She expressed a value for Grotius; and she was an excellent judge of the polite arts: but illiberal, and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the same time discharged all the duties of her high station; and though her generals were basely betrayed by France, she continued to support the honour of her crown. Being resolved not to marry, she resigned her crown to her cousin, Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great success against the Poles: he drove their king, John Casimir, into Silesia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their usual inconstancy, they broke. His progress upon the ice against Denmark, has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His son and successor, Charles IX. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it necessary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the islands of Bornholm, and Drontheim, in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the same time with Russia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very respectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a subsidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland against him. He afterwards joined with France against the house of Austria; but being beaten in Germany at Felim-Bellin, a powerful confederacy

was

was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of the Swedish Pomerania; the bishop of Munster over-ran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wismar, and several places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St Germain, which followed that of Nimeguen, recovered all he had lost, except some places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's sister, but made a very bad use of the tranquillity he had regained; for he enslaved and beggared his people, that he might render his power despotic, and his army formidable. The states lost all their power; and Sweden was reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to lose his head and his right hand, for the boldness of his remonstrance in favour of his countrymen, but he saved himself by flight; and Charles became so considerable a power, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryf-wick were opened under his mediation.

Charles IX. died in 1697, and was succeeded by his minor son, the famous Charles XII. The history of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen, but it was set aside for an earlier date by the management of Count Piper, who became thereby his first minister. Soon after his accession, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the Czar of Muscovy, formed a powerful confederacy against him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He made head against them all; and besieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Danish majesty, by which the duke of Holstein was re-established in his dominions. The Czar-Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men; and had besieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but such was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8,000, entirely routed the main body of the Russians, and raised the siege. Such were his successes, and so numerous his prisoners, that the Russians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equalled, if they did not excel, those of Gustavus-Adolphus. He dethroned Augustus king of Poland: but he stained all his laurels, by putting the brave Count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raised Stanislaus to the crown of Poland; and his name carried with it such terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and, among others, by the Duke of Marlborough, in the name of Queen Anne, amidst the full career of her successes against France. His stubbornness and implacable disposition, however, was such, that he cannot be considered in a better light than that of an illustrious madman; for he lost, in the battle of Pultowa, which he fought in his march to dethrone the Czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himself with 300 Swedes against 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worse than frantic. The Turks found it, however, convenient for their affairs, to set him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madness; and after his return to his dominions, he prosecuted his revenge against Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon-shot at the siege of Frederichshal,

Fredericshal, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-six years of age.

Charles XII. was succeeded, as already mentioned, by his sister, the princess Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse. We have already seen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given the substance of the capitulation signed by the queen and her husband, when they entered upon the exercise of government. Their first care was to make a peace with Great Britain: which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent their farther losses by the progress of the Russian, the Danish, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great sacrifices to obtain peace from those powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed a dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the Hats; which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Russia. Their Swedish majesties having no children, it was necessary to settle the succession; especially as the duke of Holstein was descended from the queen's eldest sister, and was, at the same time, the presumptive heir to the empire of Russia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holstein Gottorp; prince Frederic of Hesse-Cassel, nephew to the king; the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-ponts. The duke of Holstein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Russia. The Czarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, excepting a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, Adolphus Frederic, Bishop of Lubec, as their hereditary prince and successor to their crown. This was agreed to, and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty. This peace was so firmly adhered to by the Czarina, that his Danish majesty thought proper to drop all the effects of his resentment, and the indignity done his son. The prince successor married the princess Ulrica, third sister to the king of Prussia; and in 1751 entered into the possession of his new dignity, which proved to him a crown of thorns. Through a strange medley of affairs, and views of interest, the French have vast influence in all the deliberations of the Swedish senate, who of late have been little better than pensioners to that crown. The intrigues of the senators forced Adolphus to take part in the late war against Prussia; but as that war was disagreeable not only to the people but also to the king of Sweden, the nation never made so mean an appearance; and upon Russia's making peace with the king of Prussia, the Swedes likewise made their peace, upon the terms of leaving things as they stood at the beginning of the war. Augustus died dispirited in 1771, after a turbulent reign of twenty years, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus.

In this kingdom a most remarkable revolution hath taken place; and the Swedish government, from being one of the freest in Europe, is now become one of the most despotick.—On the present King's accession to the throne, in February 1771, he made the most solemn professions of veneration and respect for the established laws and constitution of the country; and not only declared his own abhorrence of an absolute government, but that he would always consider, as the

the declared enemies of his person and kingdom, all those who should, on any pretence whatever, attempt to introduce it. Accordingly he was obliged, on the 28th of February 1772, to sign the capitulations in their usual form, as no relaxation of them could be obtained notwithstanding the utmost endeavours of the court-party for that purpose; and these the King afterwards confirmed by oath. Notwithstanding this, however, it appeared plainly by the event, that the King had no design of keeping these solemn engagements into which he had just entered. The diet was sitting when he thought proper to discover his designs; and the province of Scania, which forms the Southern extremity of Sweden, was made choice of as the most proper scene of action. Prince Charles, the King's next brother, accordingly set out for Scania, under pretence of meeting the Queen-dowager on her return from the court of Berlin; and Prince Frederick Adolphus, his other brother, went into the neighbouring province of Ostrogothia, under pretence of drinking some mineral waters for his health. On the 12th of August 1772 an insurrection took place in the garrison of Christianstadt. Here one Hellichius, a captain, having, at the head of the soldiers, seized upon the magazines, arms, and fortifications, published a manifesto, wherein he accused the states of the kingdom of the greatest crimes; particularly, of assuming to themselves a despotick power, which they had carried so far, that they had increased even upon the rights and lawful power of the King himself; that therefore the garrison of that city renounced all obedience to the states of the kingdom, as they called themselves, and called upon all true Swedes to join them.

Prince Charles was at Carelsroon, between forty and fifty miles South from Christianstadt, when the news of the revolt arrived. He immediately assembled the troops, and took upon himself the command; seizing at the same time upon the town of Carelsroon, by which the arsenal, magazines, and navy, were put into his hands. He then published an obscure and almost unintelligible manifesto; from which the only thing that could be deduced was, that great dangers were impending over the people from some wicked persons in power, whose yoke they were exhorted to shake off. After this he marched to Christianstadt, leaving a garrison in Carelsroon; and, at the same time, his brother Prince Frederick Adolphus put himself at the head of the troops in Ostrogothia.

The senate were informed of this insurrection by Gen. Rudbeck, one of their own body, who happened then to be in that part of the country. This intelligence immediately produced an extraordinary meeting of that body; the result of which was, that full powers were delegated to Baron Funck and General Pecklin, to assemble the troops, and take all measures necessary for quelling the insurrection. As the regiments quartered in Stockholm were known to be too much affected to the Royal cause, others were ordered from Upland and Sundermania; and orders were given to the city-cavalry to mount their horses, and to fix patrols in all proper and convenient parts of the city, &c. They also required of the King, in terms, it is said, amounting to little less than an absolute command, not to depart from Stockholm; and desired, at the same time, that he would recall his brothers, under pretence of an apprehension for the safety of

their persons. The King was not consulted upon any of the resolutions that were passed, or the measures that were taken. Such papers, it was said, as it was necessary for him to sign, were sent to him for that purpose: but he absolutely refused to sign the commission for empowering the delegates who were going to Scania, to take upon them the command of the army.

The King for some time was totally inactive; but, on the 19th of August, found means to get all the senators secured by his guards, though accounts differ as to the manner in which this was accomplished. Certain it is, however, that the Royal party absolutely prevailed, the senate were abandoned by the army, and the old constitution of government was totally overturned. Having assembled all the states in a *plenum plenorum*, he read the articles of a new form of government. He secured himself from all danger of opposition, by posting his troops in a proper manner. The most essential articles of the new government were the following: That the King is to chuse the senate himself: That he is to call the senate together when he pleases, and to separate them also at pleasure, after they have at any time continued sitting for three months: That the contributions are to be given by the states; but if not granted within three months, the old ones are to remain: In case of invasion, or pressing necessity, the King may impose some taxes for raising money, till the states can be assembled: When the states are assembled, they are not to deliberate upon any thing but what the King pleases to lay before them: and, That the King is to have the sole disposition of the army, navy, and finances, and all employments civil and military.

	C O I N S.	l. s. d.
The gold ducat of Sweden is		0 9 3
An eight-mark piece of silver		0 5 2
A four-mark piece		0 2 7

There are copper coins (some as big as a small tile) of several values; and, as they frequently pay foreign merchants in copper, the merchants take wheelbarrows with them, instead of bags, when they are to receive money.

D E N M A R K.

THE dominions of the king of Denmark consisting of several detached parts, as East and West Greenland, Iceland, the Faro isles, Lapland, Norway, Denmark Proper, and some territories in Germany, they will be treated of in the order here enumerated, the latter articles comprehending the chief power with which the crown of Denmark is invested.

EAST

EAST GREENLAND

IS situated between 76 and 80 degrees of North latitude; and between the longitudes of 10 and 30 degrees East from London; is an uninhabitable country, producing very few conveniencies to mankind, except its whale-fishery, which is chiefly prosecuted in British and Dutch shipping.

This country was discovered in 1553, by Sir Hugh Willoughby, an Englishman; and is supposed to be a continuation of Old Greenland; it has for some time got the name of Spitzbergen, from its rocky coasts.

Curiosities.] The taking of whales in the Greenland seas, among the pieces of ice which have been increasing for ages, is one of the greatest curiosities in Nature.

When the ships first arrive at the ice they avoid as much as possible lying among the small pieces, both because few whales are to be found there, and likewise because it is very dangerous; as they are liable to be thrown against the sides of the ship by the swell of the sea, which these small pieces do not entirely take off. They therefore work up as far to the Northward as possible, expecting to meet with a *field* (so they term a piece of ice, of immense magnitude, and to which no end can be perceived.) About these fields the sea is as smooth as glass, and the vast tracts of ice, which reach farther than the eye can pierce, present the idea of a level country entirely covered with snow.

In the openings betwixt these fields the whales play, and when the ship has got up, and is made fast to the field by means of a large hook which they call an *ice-anchor*, the boats are immediately sent out to different distances, to wait for whales. Half the ship's company are set out in this manner, for four hours at a time, which is called the *brondt watch*, after which they are relieved by the others.

As soon as a whale is seen to spout, the boat which happens to be nearest makes towards him, and the harpooneer endeavours to strike him with a barbed dart called the *barpoon*, to the handle of which a line of several hundred fathoms in length is fastened, and lies coil'd up in the bottom of the boat. If he succeeds, an oar is placed upright in the middle of the boat, as a signal for the rest to come to their assistance. When this is perceived, the people in the ship are alarmed by the cry of *Fall, fall*, by a person stationed on deck for that purpose; upon which they immediately hasten out in boats to the place where the whale was struck.

When the monster perceives himself wounded, he immediately dives, sometimes going perpendicularly down, sometimes running off at a side. At first he sets off with immense velocity, but soon wearies, and is again obliged to come up to the surface to *blow*, or spout up water, which he cannot live without. At the second time of his coming up, he stays much longer than at first, and is again wounded with harpoons and lances; this they continue doing, till he begins to spout up blood mixed with water, which is a sign of his death; and soon after this he turns himself on his back and expires.

The whale which is most valued is of a black colour, sometimes eighty feet in length. His tongue resembles a large feather bed; and notwithstanding his mouth is so large, his throat can scarce admit a man's fist. On each side of the tongue are two hundred and fifty pieces of what is called *robale-bone*, which terminate in a kind of coarse hair. The rest of the bones of his body are hard, and of no use. He is very thick about the head, but grows gradually less from thence to the tail.

The whale has no scales, but is covered with a soft black skin, upwards of half an inch thick. Below this lies the blubber from which the oil is extracted, upwards of a foot in thickness, all round his body; and below this the muscular flesh. They do not spout up the water through their nostrils as is commonly thought, but through an hole in the back part of their head. The noise they make on this occasion resembles an exceeding strong breath, and may be heard at the distance of two or three miles.

When the Greenland-ships are got a little to the Northward of Shetland, they are followed by great numbers of birds, called by the sailors *malamucks*, who seem to have some knowledge of the errand upon which they are going. These creatures are exceedingly voracious, and are often taken with hooks baited with pieces of pork fastened to lines and thrown into the sea. When taken, they immediately vomit a quantity of oil. These birds, with many others, feed on the carcases of dead whales; but one curious circumstance relating to the *malamucks* is, that they are pursued by others, who seize them by the tail, never quitting their hold till the *malamuck* drops his excrements, which the other catches as a delicious morsel, and flies away well satisfied.

In this place it may not be improper to take notice of the adventures of eight Englishmen, that remained here all the Winter, in the year 1630.

Near the conclusion of the season for fishing, these men were sent by the captain, to kill rein-deer for the ship's company, and ordered to meet him at Bell Sound on the West coast of Greenland with their venison. Accordingly, having killed about fifteen rein-deer, they brought them in their boat to the place appointed; but, to their surprise, the ship was gone, and they had neither cloaths, house, or firing, to defend them against the approaching Winter, and were to expect a night of many months; nor had they bread or provision of any kind, but the game they killed. However, with the materials of the booths where the oil was made, they built a house, and covered it with another, to keep out the piercing cold they were to expect; provided fuel to keep a constant fire in the middle of it, and happened to find whale-oil enough to furnish them with lamps during the dark season; and thus, with the venison they killed, and the fritters, or offal of the whales, after the oil was pressed out, they laid up provision enough to serve them the Winter. The frost preserved their meat from putrefaction; they had no occasion for salt, the want of which preserved them. They had a spring of water near their house, which kept open till January, but then was entirely frozen up, and they had no other drink but melted snow afterwards. However, they all lived till the shipping returned in May following, and were brought safe to England.

The

The Dutch hearing of this, and reaping such vast advantages by the whale-fishery, sent a colony thither, provided with all manner of necessaries, but every one of them died of the scurvy before the shipping returned the following year; however, the Dutch repeated the experiment, and sent another colony to Greenland the succeeding year; but these men also perished in the same manner. From which time no nation has attempted to make settlements there; though it is evident that these two colonies were killed by their salt provisions, from the journals they left behind; and as meat will keep in this climate without salt, if a colony sent thither should kill deer and other game enough to subsist them during the Winter, there is no doubt but they might live there unhurt as the eight Englishmen did; but is not worth the while of any nation but the Dutch, who have, in some degree, monopolized the fishery, to make the experiment again.

That it is not absolutely impossible however to settle a colony in these frozen regions, appears from the following extraordinary account of four Russian sailors, who lived six years on a desert island to the Eastward of Spitzbergen, three of whom returned alive to their native country,

In the year 1743, one Jeremiah Okladmkof, a merchant of Mefen, a town in the province of Jugovia, and in the government of Archangel, fitted out a vessel, carrying fourteen men: she was destined for Spitzbergen, to be employed in the whale or seal fishery. For eight successive days after they had sailed the wind was fair; but on the 9th it changed; so that instead of getting to the West of Spitzbergen, the usual place of rendezvous for the Dutch ships, and those of other nations annually employed in the whale-fishery, they were driven Eastward of those islands; and, after some days, they found themselves at a small distance from one of them, called *East Spitzbergen*; by the Russians, *Malay Broun*, that is, Little Broun: (Spitzbergen properly so called, being known to them by the name of *Bolschoy Broun*, that is, Great Broun.) Having approached this island within almost three wersts, or two English miles, their vessel was suddenly surrounded by ice, and they found themselves in an extremely dangerous situation.

In this alarming state a council was held; when the mate, Alexis Himkof, informed them, that he recollected to have heard, that some of the people of Mefen, some time before, having formed a resolution of Wintering upon this island, had accordingly carried from that city timber proper for building a hut, and had actually erected one at some distance from the shore.

This information induced the whole company to resolve on Wintering there, if the hut, as they hoped, still existed; for they clearly perceived the imminent danger they were in, and that they must inevitably perish if they continued in the ship. They dispatched therefore four of their crew in search of the hut, or any other succour they could meet with. These were Alexis Himkof, the mate; Iwan Himkof, his godson; Stephen Sharapof, and Feodor Weregion.

As the shore on which they were to land was uninhabited, it was necessary that they should make some provision for their expedition. They had almost two miles to travel over loose ridges of ice; which being raised by the waves, and driven against each other by the wind, rendered the way equally difficult and dangerous: prudence therefore forbade

forbade their loading themselves too much, lest, being overburdened, they might sink in between the pieces of ice and perish.

Having thus maturely considered the nature of their undertaking, they provided themselves with a musket, and powder-horn, containing twelve charges of powder, with as many balls, an ax, a small kettle, a bag with about twenty pounds of flour, a knife, a tinder-box and tinder, a bladder filled with tobacco, and every man his wooden pipe. Thus accoutred these four sailors quickly arrived on the island, little suspecting the misfortunes that would befall them.

They began with exploring the country; and soon discovered the hut they were in search of, about an English mile and a half from the shore. It was thirty-six feet in length, eighteen feet in height, and as many in breadth. It contained a small antichamber, about twelve feet broad, which had two doors, the one to shut it up from the outer air, the other to form a communication with the inner-room: this contributed greatly to keep the larger room warm, when once heated. In the large room was an earthen stove, constructed in the Russian manner; that is, a kind of oven without a chimney, which serves occasionally either for baking, or heating the room, or, as is customary among the Russian peasants, in very cold weather, for a place to sleep upon.

When a fire is kindled in one of these stoves, the room, as may well be supposed, is filled with smoke; to give vent to which, the door, and three or four windows are opened. These windows are each a foot in height, and about six inches wide: they are cut out of the beams whereof the house is built; and, by means of a sliding-board, they may, when occasion requires it, be shut very close. When therefore a fire is made in the stove, the smoke descends no lower than the windows; through which, or through the door, it finds a vent, according to the direction of the wind; and persons may continue in the room without feeling any great inconveniency from it. The reader will readily conjecture, that the upper part of such a place, between the windows and the ceiling, must be as black as ebony; but from the windows down to the floor, the wood is perfectly clean, and retains its natural colour.

They rejoiced greatly at having discovered the hut; but it had suffered much from the weather, having now been built a considerable time: our adventurers, however, contrived to pass the night in it. Early next morning they hastened to the shore, impatient to inform their comrades of their success; and also to procure from their vessel such provisions, ammunition, and other necessaries, as might better enable them to winter on the island.

The readers may figure to themselves the astonishment and agony of mind these poor people must have felt, when, on reaching the place of their landing, they saw nothing but an open sea, free from the ice which, but a day before, had covered the ocean. A violent storm, which had arisen during the night, had certainly been the cause of this disastrous event. But they could not tell whether the ice, which had before hemmed in the vessel, agitated by the violence of the waves, had been driven against her, and shattered her to pieces; or whether she had been carried by the current into the main; a circumstance which frequently happens in those seas. Whatever accident had be-
fallen

fallen the ship, they saw her no more ; and as no tidings were ever afterwards received of her, it is most probable that she sunk, and that all on board of her perished.

This melancholy event depriving the unhappy wretches of all hope of ever being able to quit the island, they returned to the hut from whence they had come, full of horror and despair. Their first attention was employed, as may easily be imagined, in devising means of providing subsistence, and for repairing their hut. The twelve charges of powder which they had brought with them, soon procured them as many rein-deer ; the island, fortunately for them, abounding in these animals.

It hath been already observed, that the hut, which the sailors were so fortunate as to find, had sustained some damage ; and it was this : there were cracks in many places between the boards of the building, which freely admitted the air. This inconvenience was however easily remedied, as they had an ax, and the beams were still sound, (for wood in those cold climates continues thro' a length of years unimpaired by worms or decay,) so it was easy for them to make the boards join again very tolerably ; besides, moss growing in great abundance all over the island, there was more than sufficient to stop up the crevices, which wooden houses must always be liable to. Repairs of this kind cost the unhappy men the less trouble, as they were Russians ; for all Russian peasants are known to be good carpenters ; they build their own houses, and are very expert in handling the ax.

The intense cold which makes those climates habitable to so few species of animals, renders them equally unfit for the production of vegetables. No species of tree, or even shrub, is found on any of the islands of Spitzbergen ; a circumstance of the most alarming nature to our sailors. Without fire it was impossible to resist the rigour of the climate ; and without wood, how was that fire to be produced, or supported ? Providence, however, has so ordered it, that in this particular the sea supplies the defects of the land. In wandering along the beach, they collected plenty of wood, which had been driven ashore by the waves ; and which at first consisted of the wrecks of ships, and afterwards of whole trees with their roots, the produce of some more hospitable, but to them unknown climate, which the overflowing of rivers, or other accidents, had sent into the ocean.

Nothing proved of more essential service to those unfortunate men, during the first year of their exile, than some boards they found upon the beach, having a long iron hook, some nails of about five or six inches long, and proportionably thick, and other small pieces of old iron fixed in them ; the melancholy relics of some vessels cast away in those remote parts. These were thrown ashore by the waves at a time when the want of powder gave our men reason to apprehend that they must fall a prey to hunger, as they had nearly consumed those rein-deer they had killed. This lucky circumstance was attended with another, equally fortunate : they found on the shore the root of a fir-tree, which nearly approached to the figure of a bow. As necessity has ever been the mother of invention, so they soon fashioned this root to a good bow, by the help of a knife. But still they wanted a string and arrows. Not knowing how to procure these at present,

sent, they resolved upon making a couple of lances, to defend themselves against the white bears, by far the most ferocious of their kind, whose attacks they had great reason to dread.

Finding they could neither make the heads of their lances, nor of their arrows, without the help of a hammer, they contrived to form the large iron hook above-mentioned into one, by heating it, and widening a hole it happened to have about its middle, with the help of one of their largest nails. This received the handle, and a round button at one end of the hook served for the face of the hammer. A large pebble supplied the place of an anvil; and a couple of rein-deer's horns made the tongs. By the means of such tools, they made two heads of spears; and after polishing and sharpening them on stones, they tied them as fast as possible with thongs made of rein-deer skins, to sticks about the thickness of a man's arm, which they got from some branches of trees that had been cast on shore.

Thus equipped with spears, they resolved to attack a white bear; and after a most dangerous encounter, they killed the formidable creature, and thereby made a new supply of provisions. The flesh of this animal they relished exceedingly, as they thought it much resembled beef in taste and flavour. The tendons they saw with much pleasure, could, with little or no trouble, be divided into filaments, of what fineness they thought fit. This perhaps was the most fortunate discovery these men could have made; for besides other advantages which will be hereafter mentioned, they were hereby furnished with strings for their bow.

The success of our unfortunate islanders in making the spears, and the use these proved of, encouraged them to proceed, and to forge some pieces of iron into heads of arrows of the same shape, though somewhat smaller in size than the spears above mentioned. Having ground and sharpened these like the former, they tied them with the sinews of the white bears to pieces of fir, to which, by the help of fine threads of the same, they fastened feathers of sea-fowl; and thus became possessed of a complete bow and arrows. Their ingenuity, in this respect, was crowned with success far beyond their expectation; for during the time of their continuance upon the island, with these arrows they killed no less than two hundred and fifty rein-deer, besides a great number of blue and white foxes. The flesh of these animals served them also for food, and their skins for cloathing, and other necessary preservatives against the intense coldness of a climate so near the pole.

They killed, however, only ten white bears in all; and that not without the utmost danger; for these animals being prodigiously strong, defended themselves with astonishing vigour and fury. The first our men attacked designedly; the other nine they slew in defending themselves from their assaults: for some of these creatures even ventured to enter the outer room of the hut, in order to devour them. It is true, that all the bears did not shew equal intrepidity; either owing to some being less pressed by hunger, or to their being by nature less carnivorous than the others; for some of them which entered the hut immediately betook themselves to flight on the first attempt of the sailors to drive them away. A repetition, however, of these ferocious attacks, threw the poor men into great
terror

terror and anxiety, as they were in almost a perpetual danger of being devoured. The three different kinds of animals above-mentioned, viz. the rein-deer, the blue and white foxes, and the white bears, were the only food these wretched mariners tasted during their continuance in this dreary abode.

Our sailors were for some time reduced to the necessity of eating their meat almost raw, and without either bread or salt; for they were quite destitute of both. The intenseness of the cold, together with the want of proper conveniencies, prevented them from cooking their victuals in a proper manner. There was but one stove in the hut, and that being set up agreeably to the Russian-taste, was more like an oven, and consequently not well adapted for boiling any thing. Wood also was too precious a commodity to be wasted in keeping up two fires; and the one they might have made out of their habitation to dress their victuals would in no way have served to warm them. Another reason against their cooking in the open air was the continual danger of an attack from the white bears. And here we must observe, that suppose they had made the attempt, it would still have been practicable for only some part of the year; for the cold, which in such a climate for some months scarce ever abates, from the long absence of the sun, then enlightening the opposite hemisphere; the inconceivable quantity of snow which is continually falling through the greatest part of the Winter; together with the almost incessant rains at certain seasons; all these were insurmountable obstacles to that expedient.

To remedy, therefore, in some degree, the hardship of eating their meat half raw, they bethought themselves of drying some of their provision during the Summer in the open air, and afterwards of hanging it up in the upper part of the hut, which, as we mentioned before, was continually filled with smoke down to the windows: it was thus dried thoroughly by the help of that smoke. This meat, so prepared, they used for bread, and it made them relish their other flesh the better, as they could only half dress it. Finding this experiment answer in every respect their wishes, they continued to practise it during the whole time of their confinement upon the island, and always kept up by that means a sufficient stock of provisions. Water they had in Summer from small rivulets that fell from the rocks; and in Winter, from the snow and ice thawed: this was of course their only beverage; and their small kettle was the only vessel they could make use of for this and other purposes.

It is well known, that seafaring people are extremely subject to the scurvy: and it has been observed, that this disease increases in proportion as we approach the poles; which must be attributed either to the excessive cold, or to some other cause yet unknown. However that may be, our mariners, seeing themselves quite destitute of every means of cure, in case they should be attacked with so fatal a disorder, judged it expedient not to neglect any regimen generally adopted as a preservative against this impending evil. Iwan Himkof, one of their number, who had several times wintered off the coast of West-Spitzbergen, advised his unfortunate companions to swallow raw and frozen meat, broken into small bits; to drink the blood of rein-deer warm, as it flowed from their veins immediately

after killing them; to use as much exercise as possible; and, lastly, to eat scurvy-grass, (*cochlearia*), which grows on the island, though not in great plenty.

We pretend not to determine whether raw frozen flesh, or warm rein-deer-blood, be proper antidotes to the distemper; but exercise, and the use of scurvy-grass, have always been recommended to persons of a scorbutic tendency, whether actually afflicted with the disorder or not. Be this as it may, experience at least seems to have proved these remedies to be effectual; for three of the sailors, who pursued the above method continued totally free from all taint of the disease. The fourth, Feodor Weregine, on the contrary, who was, naturally indolent, averse to drinking the rein-deer blood, and unwilling to leave the hut when he could possibly avoid it, was, soon after their arrival on the island, seized with the scurvy; which afterwards became so bad, that he passed almost six years under the greatest sufferings: in the latter part of that time, he became so weak, that he could no longer sit erect, nor even raise his hand to his mouth; so that his humane companions were obliged to feed and tend him like a new-born infant, to the hour of his death.

Our sailors had brought a small bag of flour with them to the island. Of this they had consumed about one half with their meat; the remainder they employed in a different manner, equally useful. They soon saw the necessity of keeping up a continual fire in so cold a climate; and found, that if it should unfortunately go out, they had no means of lighting it again; for though they had a steel and flints, yet they wanted both match and tinder.

In their excursions through the island, they had met with a slimy loam, or a kind of clay, nearly in the middle of it. Out of this, they found means to form a utensil which might serve for a lamp; and they proposed to keep it constantly burning with the fat of the animals they should kill. This was certainly the most rational scheme they could have thought of; for to be without a light, in a climate where, during Winter, darkness reigns for several months together, would have added much to their other calamities. Having therefore fashioned a kind of lamp, they filled it with rein-deer's fat, and stuck in it some twisted linen, shaped into a wick. But they had the mortification to find, that as soon as the fat melted, it not only soaked into the clay, but fairly run through it on all sides. The thing therefore was to devise some means for preventing this inconveniency, not arising from cracks, but from the substance of which the lamp was made being too porous. They made therefore a new one, dried it thoroughly in the air, then heated it red hot, and afterwards quenched it in their kettle, wherein they had boiled a quantity of flour down to the consistence of thin starch. The lamp being thus dried, and filled with melted fat, they now found, to their great joy, it did not leak. But for greater security, they dipped linen rags in their paste, and with them covered all its outside. Succeeding in this attempt, they immediately made another lamp, for fear of an accident, that in all events they might not be destitute of light; and when they had done so much, they thought proper to save the remainder of their flour for similar purposes.

As they had carefully collected whatever happened to be cast on shore,

shore, to supply them with fuel, they had found amongst the wrecks of vessels some cordage, and a small quantity of oakum, (a kind of hemp used for calking ships,) which served them to make wicks for their lamp. When these stores began to fail, their shirts, and their drawers, (which are worn by almost all Russian peasants,) were employed to make good the deficiency. By these means they kept their lamp burning without intermission, from the day they first made it (a work they set about soon after their arrival on the island) until that of their embarkation for their native country.

The necessity of converting the most essential parts of their cloathing, such as their shirts and drawers, to the use above specified, exposed them the more to the rigour of the climate. They also found themselves in want of shoes, boots, and other articles of dress; and as Winter was approaching, they were again obliged to have recourse to that ingenuity which necessity suggests, and which seldom fails in the trying hour of distress.

They had skins of rein-deer and foxes in plenty, that had hitherto served them for bedding, and which they now thought of employing in some more essential service; but the question was how to tan them. After deliberating on this subject, they took to the following method: They soaked the skins for several days in fresh water, till they could pull off the hair pretty easily; they then rubbed the wet leather with their hands till it was nearly dry, when they spread some melted rein-deer-fat over it, and again rubbed it well. By this process the leather became soft, pliant, and supple, proper for answering every purpose they wanted it for. Those skins which they designed for furs, they only soaked for one day, to prepare them for being wrought, and then proceeded in the manner before mentioned, except only that they did not remove the hair. Thus they soon provided themselves with the necessary materials for all the parts of dress they wanted.

But here another difficulty occurred.—They had neither awls for making shoes or boots, nor needles for sewing their garments. This want, however, they soon supplied by means of the bits of iron they had occasionally collected. Out of these they made both; and by their industry even brought them to a certain degree of perfection. The making eyes to their needles gave them indeed no little trouble; but this they also performed with the assistance of their knife; for having ground it to a very sharp point, and heated red-hot a kind of wire forged for that purpose, they pierced a hole thro' one end, and by whetting and smoothing it on stones, brought the other to a point, and thus gave the whole needle a very tolerable form. These needles had no fault except the eye; which being made in the manner above-mentioned, was so rough, that it often cut the thread drawn through it; an imperfection they could not possibly remedy for want of better tools.

Scissars, to cut out the skins, were what they next had occasion for; but having none, their place they supplied with their knife: and though there was neither tailor nor shoemaker amongst them, yet they contrived to cut out their leather and furs well enough for their purpose. The sinews of the bears and the rein-deer, which they had found means to split, served them for thread; and thus,

provided with the necessary implements, they proceeded to make their new clothes.

Their Summer dress consisted of a kind of jacket and trowsers, made of skins prepared as above-mentioned; and in Winter they wore long fur-gowns, like the Samojedes, or Laplanders, furnished with a hood, which covered their head and neck, leaving only an opening for the face. These gowns were sewed close round, so that to put them on, they were obliged to bring them over their heads like a shirt.

Excepting the uneasiness which generally accompanies an involuntary solitude, these people, having thus by their ingenuity so far overcome their wants, might have had reason to be contented with what Providence had done for them in their distressful situation; but that melancholy reflection, to which each of these forlorn persons could not help giving way, that perhaps he might survive his companions, and then perish for want of subsistence, or become a prey to the wild beasts, incessantly disturbed their minds. The mate, Alexis Hinkof, more particularly suffered, who having left a wife and three children behind, sorely repined at his being separated from them; they were constantly in his mind, and the thought of never more seeing them made him very unhappy.

When our four mariners had passed nearly six years in this dismal place, Feodor Weregine, whose illness we had occasion to mention above, and who all along had been in a languid condition, died; after having, in the latter part of his life, suffered most excruciating pains. Though they were thus freed from the trouble of attending him, and the grief of being witnesses to his misery, without being able to afford him any relief, yet his death affected them not a little: They saw their number lessened, and every one wished to be the first that should follow him. As he died in Winter, they dug a grave in the snow as deep as they could, in which they laid the corpse, and then covered it to the best of their power, that the white bears might not get at it.

Now, at the time when the melancholy reflections occasioned by the death of their comrade were fresh in their minds, and when each expected to pay this last duty to the remaining companions of his misfortunes, or to receive it from them, they unexpectedly got sight of a Russian ship: this happened on the 15th of August 1749.

The vessel belonged to a trader, of the sect called by its adherents *Stara Viera*, that is, *The Old Faith*, who had come with it to Archangel, proposing it should Winter in Nova Zembla; but fortunately for our poor exiles, Mr Vernezobre proposed to the merchant to let his vessel Winter at West-Spitzbergen, which he at last, after many objections, agreed to.

The contrary winds they met with in their passage, made it impossible for them to reach the place of their destination. The vessel was driven towards East-Spitzbergen, directly opposite to the residence of our mariners; who, as soon as they perceived her, hastened to light fires upon the hills nearest their habitation, and then ran to the beach, waving a flag made of rein-deer's hide fastened to a pole. The people on board, seeing these signals, concluded that their were men on the island who implored their assistance, and therefore came to an anchor near the shore,

It would be in vain to attempt describing the joy of these poor people at seeing the moment of their deliverance so near. They soon agreed with the master of the ship to work for him on the voyage, and to pay him eighty rubles on their arrival, for taking them on board, with all their riches; which consisted in fifty pud, or 2000 pound weight of rein-deer fat; in many hides of these animals, and skins of the blue and white foxes, together with those of the ten white bears they had killed. They took care not to forget their bow and arrows, their spears, their knife, and ax, which were almost worn out, their awls, and their needles, which they kept carefully in a bone-box, very ingeniously made with their knife only; and, in short, every thing they were possessed of.

Our adventurers arrived safe at Archangel on the 28th of September 1749, having spent six years and three months in their rueful solitude.

The moment of their landing was so nearly proving fatal to the loving and beloved wife of Alexis Himkof, who, being present when the vessel came into port, immediately knew her husband, and ran with so much eagerness to his embraces, that she slipped into the water, and very narrowly escaped being drowned.

All three on their arrival were strong and healthy; but having living so long without bread, they could not reconcile themselves to the use of it, and complained that it filled them with wind. Nor could they bear any spiritous liquors, and therefore drank nothing but water.

Some of our readers may perhaps consider this recital in the same kind of light they do the history of Robinson Crusoe: the truth of these adventures is however sufficiently authenticated. When these unfortunate sailors first arrived at Archangel, they were examined apart by Mr Klintadt, chief auditor of the admiralty of that city, who minuted down all the particulars, which exactly corresponded with each account. Mr Le Roy, professor of history in the Imperial Academy, some time after sent for two of the men, viz. Alexis Himkof, and Himkof, his god-son, to Petersburg, from whose mouths he took the preceding narrative, which also agreed with Mr Klintadt's minutes. The original was published in the German language, at Petersburg, in the year 1769, and transmitted from thence to the ingenious Mr Banks, who, with several other members of the royal society, were so well pleased with the account, that they directed a translation of it to be made into English.

WEST GREENLAND.

THIS country lies between the latitudes of 60 and 75 degrees North, and between the longitudes of 0 degree and 50 degrees West; it is in general very barren, scarcely producing any trees or herbage. By the latest accounts it is thought there are about 7000 inhabitants; the greatest part of these rove from place to place for hunting or fishing, in which they are very expert, during their Summer months, which

which are very hot : in the Winter, which is extremely cold, they live in well sheltered huts upon the stock they collect in Summer.

These people, who are very rude, are, in their aspect, manners, and dress, so like the Esquimaux Indians, in the Northern parts of America, that it may be thought the two people are allied to one another. The Danes have lately sent some missionaries to convert them to Christianity, and to lead a settled life ; but the good efforts of these pastors have not yet produced any considerable change. There are no towns found in the country, nor any produce sufficient to tempt strangers to traffic with them : indeed they have a very valuable fishery on the coast.

ICELAND ISLAND

IS situated between the latitudes of 63 and 66½ degrees North, and between the longitudes of 12 and 27 degrees West ; is about 180 miles North and South, and about 400 miles East and West : the land is rather barren, scarce any thing thriving there besides juniper shrubs, birch, and willow ; the bread used here is made of dried fish ground to a powder ; and the flesh eaten, beside mutton, is of bears, wolves, and foxes ; but fish, with their roots and herbs, are their greatest dainties.

The inhabitants are estimated at about 80,000, but it is imagined they were formerly more numerous, before the small-pox, and other pestilential diseases got amongst the islanders : they are Christians, and an honest, industrious, and hardy people ; amusing themselves in singing, playing at chess, and other innocent amusements ; they differ very little from the Danes and Norwegians, from whom 'tis probable they were descended ; their ancestors might perhaps have sought an asylum here, to be exempt from the tyranny of the Danish kings ; but royal power followed them.

The chief town is called Skalholt, situated among the mountains, is a bishop's see, and the residence of the Danish governor, or deputy-governor, whose salary is 400 rix-dollars a-year.

They export dried fish, salted mutton and lamb, train oil, coarse woolen cloth, stockings, foxes furs, feathers, and a few other articles ; and receive timber, fishing-tackle, bread, horse-shoes, linen, salt, and a few luxuries for the opulent.

The inhabitants live under the Danish protection, and produce a revenue to the king of about 30,000 crowns a-year.

The most remarkable thing in this island is the mountain and volcano of Hecla.

THE FARO ISLES.

THESE are about twenty-four in number, lye in a cluster within the limits of a degree in latitude and longitude, about 64 degrees North, and 7 degrees West ; they are, in soil and vegetation, not much unlike Iceland ; and between 3000 and 4000 inhabitants, but are of very little service to Denmark.

LAPLAND.

L A P L A N D.

Situation, Extent, Division, and Name.

} THE whole country of Lapland, extends, so far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71-30. N. lat. to the White-sea, under the arctic circle, and is subject to different powers. Norwegian Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part belongs to the Swedes, which is by far the most valuable; and some parts, in the East, to the Muscovites. It would be little better than wasting the reader's time to pretend to point out the supposed dimensions of each. That belonging to the Swedes may be seen in the table of dimensions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts say, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and ninety in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic to the mountains that separate Norway from Sweden. The Muscovite part lies towards the East, between the lake Enarak and the White-sea. Those parts, notwithstanding the rudeness of the country, are divided into smaller districts; generally taking their names from rivers: but, unless in the Swedish part, which is subject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be said to be under no regular government. The Swedish Lapland therefore is the object considered by authors in describing this country. It has been generally thought that the Laplanders are the descendents of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lapper*, which signifies exiles. In Lapland, for some months in the Summer, the sun never sets; and during the same space of time in Winter, it never rises: but the inhabitants are so well assisted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they never discontinue their work through darkness.

Climate.] In Winter it is no unusual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in some thermometers, spirits of wine are concreted into ice: but this must be understood only of weak spirits, of which the aqueous part is frozen, for pure spirit of wine remains fluid even in the intense cold of the Northern parts of Asia, which freezes quick-silver; the limbs of the inhabitants are often mortified with cold; and drifts of snow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw sometimes takes place, and then the frost that succeeds presents the Laplander with a smooth level of ice, over which he travels in his sledge with inconceivable swiftness. The heats of Summer are excessive for a short time; and the cataracts which dash from the mountains often present to the eye the most picturesque appearances.

Mountains, Rivers, Lakes, and Forests.] The reader must form in his mind a vast mass of mountains, irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland: they are, however, in some instances, separated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of islands, some of which form pleasant habitations, and are believed by the natives to be the terrestrial paradise; even roses and flowers grow wild on their borders in the Summer; but this is

but

but a short gleam of temperature; for the climate in general is excessively severe. Dusky forests, and noisome, unhealthy morasses, cover great part of the flat country; so that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the state of the inhabitants.

Metals and Minerals.] Silver and gold mines, as well as those of copper and lead, have been discovered and worked in Lapland: beautiful chrystals are found here, as are some amethysts and topazes; also various sorts of mineral stones, surprisngly polished by the hand of Nature; valuable pearls have been sometimes found in rivers, but never in the seas.

Animals.] The zibelin, a creature resembling the martin, is a native of Lapland; and its skin, whether black or white, is so much esteemed, that it is frequently given as presents to royal and distinguished personages. The Lapland hares grow white in the Winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the most remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the rein-deer. This animal, the most useful perhaps of any in the world, resembles the stag, only it somewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. In Summer, the rein-deer provide themselves with leaves and grass, and in the Winter they live upon moss: they have a wonderful sagacity at finding it out, and when found, they scrape away the snow that covers it, with their feet. The scantiness of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journeys which they can perform without any other support. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of sledge, shaped like a small boat, in which the traveller, well secured from cold, is laced down, with the reins in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and snow. The deer, whose harnessing is very simple, sets out, and continues the journey with prodigious speed; and is so safe and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to support their master. Their instinct in chusing the road and directing their course, can only be accounted for, by their being well acquainted with the country during the Summer months, when they live in woods. Their flesh is a well-tasted food, whether fresh or dried: their skin forms excellent cloathing both for the bed and the body: their milk and cheese are nutritive and pleasant; and their intestines and tendons supply their masters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may be shot at as other game. But it is said, that if one is killed in a flock, the survivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore single stragglers are generally pitched upon. The number of tame rein-deers possessed by a Laplander forms the chief part of his riches. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniencies. It is difficult in Summer to keep them from straggling; they are sometimes buried in the snow; and they frequently grow restive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. His surprisng speed (for they are said to run at the rate of two hundred miles a-day) seems to be owing to his impatience to get rid of his incumbrance, and the posture in which the people are obliged

obliged to sit in their carriages is very disagreeable; nay, they are sometimes killed when the rein-deer suddenly stops, or attacks them with its feet and horns.

There is a very remarkable insect found in some provinces of Lapland; Linnæus has described it by the name of *Furia Infernalis*. It sometimes drops out of the air upon travellers, eats its way through the flesh, and excites such a violent pain as frequently to occasion death in a quarter of an hour. It is something like a caterpillar; and hath no wings. How it gets into the air, or by what means it subsists, are questions as yet unanswerable by our Naturalists.

People, Customs, and Manners.] The language of the Laplanders is barbarous, but it seems radically to have come from Finland. Learning has made no progress among them; and they practise such arts only as supply them with the means of living. Missionaries from the other parts of Scandinavia introduced among them the Christian religion; but they cannot be said even yet to be Christians, though they have among them some religious seminaries, instituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practise as gross superstitions and idolatries as are to be found among the most uninstructed Pagans; and so absurd, that they scarcely deserve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their superstitions have induced the Northern traders to believe that they are skilful in magic and divination. For this purpose their magicians, who are a peculiar set of men, make use of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir-pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a skin; on this they draw, with a kind of red-colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jesus Christ, the apostles, the sun, moon, stars, birds, and rivers; on these they place one or two brass rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and according to their progress the forcerer prognosticates. These frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the Northern ship-masters are such dupes to the arts of the impostors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's direction, they gain what wind they want. This is a very common traffick on the banks of the Red sea, and is managed with great address on the part of the forcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted talisman. The Laplanders still retain the worship of many of the Teutonic gods, but have among them great remains of the druidical institutions. They believe the transmigration of the soul; and have festivals set apart for the worship of certain genii, called *Jeuhles*, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or substance, they assign to them neither images nor statues.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenness of its soil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general shorter by the head than more Southern Europeans. Maupertuis measured a woman, who was suckling her own child, whose height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make, however, a more human

appearance than the men, who are ill-shaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies.

When a Laplander intends to marry, he, or his friends, court the intended bride's father with brandy. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchased from her father by the lover with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtship sometimes for three years. The priest of the parish at last celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to serve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

Commerce.] Little can be said of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports consist of fish, rein-deer, furs, baskets, and toys; with some dried pikes, and cheeses made of the rein-deer milk. They receive for these, rixdollars, woolen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, spiritous liquors, tobacco, and other necessities. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconsiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. And the reader may make some estimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty squirrel-skins, or one fox-skin, and a pair of Lapland shoes, produce one rixdollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greatest part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the security of their property, few disputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable aversion to war; and, as far as we know, are never employed in any army.

N O R W A Y.

THIS country lies between the latitudes of 58 and 68 degrees North, about 600 miles; and between the longitudes of 5 and 15 degrees East; but, on a mean, cannot be reckoned at above 130 miles in the breadth. Is bounded on the North and West by the Northern ocean; on the South by the Scaggerac, or entrance into the Baltic-sea; and on the East by a chain of mountains, in general called the Dofrine, parting it from Sweden, but have different names in different parts of the country.

Climate.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its exposure towards the sea. At Bergen, the Winter is moderate, and the sea is navigable. The Eastern parts are commonly covered with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of October, with intense severity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that while frozen to a considerable thickness. In 1719, seven thousand Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, perished in the snow, on the mountains which separate Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different postures. But even frost and snow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the

the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more Northerly parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is so intense, that they are but little known. At Bergen, the longest day consists of about nineteen hours, and the shortest about six. In Summer the inhabitants can read and write at midnight, by the light of the sky; and in the most Northerly parts, about Mid-summer, the sun is continually in view. In those parts, however, in the middle of Winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon, for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been so kind to the Norwegians, that in the midst of their darkness, the sky is so serene, and the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they can carry on their fishery, and work at their several trades in open air.

The air is so pure in some of the inland parts, that the inhabitants are said to live so long as to be tired of life; and cause themselves to be transported to a less salubrious air.

Mountains.] Norway is reckoned one of the most mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains running from South to North: to pass that of Hardanger, a man must travel about seventy English miles; and to pass others, upwards of fifty. Dofresfeld is counted the highest mountain, perhaps, in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; tho' the government is at the expence of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a most surprising landscape. The activity of the natives, in recovering their sheep and goats, when penned up, through a false step, in one of those rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himself to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, sitting on a cross stick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature stands, he fastens it to the same cord, and it is drawn up with himself. The caverns that are to be met with in those mountains are more wonderful than those, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. One of them, called Dolsteen, was, in 1750, visited by two clergymen; who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted: that they descended a flight of natural stairs; but when they arrived at another, they durst not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles going and returning.

Forests.] The chief wealth of Norway lyes in its forests, which furnish foreigners with masts, beams, planks, and boards; and serve beside for all domestick uses; particularly the construction of houses, bridges, ships, and for charcoal to the founderies. The chief timber growing here are fir, pine, elm, ash, yew, beireed, (a very curious wood) birch, beech, oak, el, or alder, juniper, the aspen-tree, the

comel, or sloe-tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony; (under the mountains of Kolen) lyme, and willows. The sums which Norway receives for timber are very considerable; but the industry of the inhabitants is greatly assisted by the course of their rivers, and the situation of their lakes; which affords them not only the conveniency already mentioned, of floating down their timber, but that of erecting saw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all sawed timber belongs to his Danish majesty, and forms no inconsiderable part of his revenue.

Stones, Metals, and Minerals.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of stones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or asbestos, which, when its delicate fibres are wove into cloth, are cleaned by the fire, is likewise found here; as are chrystals, granates, amethyfts, agate, thunder-stones, and eagle-stones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. Some silver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many silver masses that have been discovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be seen at the Royal Museum at Copenhagen. The lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country; one of the copper-mines at Rorras is thought to be the richest in Europe. Norway likewise produces quick-silver, sulphur, vitriol, allum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

Rivers and Lakes.] The rivers and fresh-water lakes in this country are well stocked with fish; and navigable for vessels of considerable burden. The most extraordinary circumstance attending the lakes is, that some of them contain floating islands, formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs; and though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. So late as the year 1702, the noble family seat of Borge, near Fredericstادت, suddenly sunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyss 100 fathoms in depth; and its site was instantly filled with a piece of water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which fourteen people, and two-hundred head of cattle perished, was occasioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river,

Uncommon Animals, Fowls and Fishes.] All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beasts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hares, and rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag; it is harmless, and in the Winter, social; and their flesh tastes like venison. The hares are small; and are said to live upon mice in the Winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious; they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are in common with the rest of their species in Northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary specimens of their

their sagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs; and some prefer bear-hams to those of Westphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are shy even of a cow or a goat, unless impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat-kind, and have claws like tygers; they dig under ground, and often undermine sheep-folds, where they make dreadful havock. The skin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable; as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewise found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs ashore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwise called the erven, or vielfras, resembles a turnspit dog; with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is so precious, that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the skin unhurt; he is bold, and so ravenous, that it is said he will devour a carcass larger than himself, and unburthens his stomach by squeezing himself between two close-standing trees: when taken, he has been even known to eat stone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its shyness and cleanliness; and few of our readers need to be told, that their fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown forest cat, only its head and snout are sharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The alks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noise of their wings resembles a storm; their size is the bigness of a large duck: they are an aquatic fowl, and their flesh is much esteemed. No fewer than thirty different kinds of thrushes reside in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and several sorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark-grey colour, his eye resembling that of a pheasant; and he is said to be the largest of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the sea; the former is so strong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the sea, or fish-eagle, is larger than the other; he subsists on aquatic food; and sometimes darts on large fishes with such force, that being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

The Scandinavian lakes and seas are astonishingly fruitful in all fish that are found on the sea-coasts of Europe, which need not here to be enumerated. Some fishes in those seas, however, have their peculiarities. The haac mæren is a species of shark ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train-oil. The tuella-flynder is an excessive large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who had fallen over board, to keep him from rising. The season for herring fishing is announced to the fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales, (of which seven different species are mentioned) in following the herring shoals. The large whale resembles a cod, with small eyes, a dark marble skin, and white belly: They copulate like land-animals, standing upright in the sea. A young whale, when first produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female some-

times

times brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours such an incredible number of small fish, that his belly is often ready to burst; in which case he makes a most tremendous noise from pain. The smaller fish have their revenge; some of them fasten on his back, and incessantly beat him: others, with sharp horns, or rather bones on their beaks, swim under his belly, and sometimes rip it up; some are provided with long sharp teeth, and tear his flesh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war against him when he comes near the surface of the water; and he has been known to be so tortured, that he has beat himself to death on the rocks. But all this must be understood of the spermaceti whale, which hath large teeth, and seems to be a rapacious animal; for the true Greenland whale is harmless and timorous. The coasts of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the shoals that come from under the ice at the North pole; and about the latitude of Iceland divide themselves into three bodies: one of these supply the Western isles and coasts of Scotland, another directs its course round the Eastern part of Great Britain, down the Channel; and the third enters the Baltic, through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabelian, and torfk fishes, follow them, and feed upon their span; and are taken in prodigious numbers in fifty or sixty fathoms water: these, especially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers are exported and sold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fishing on the coast of Norway. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea-scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The most seemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning sea-monsters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian seas; and the sea-snake, or serpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera; if we may believe the accounts of Erich Pentop-pidden, bishop of Bergen. In 1756, one of them was shot by a master of a ship: its head resembled that of a horse; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white mane hanging from its neck: it floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea: between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, which were very thick: and the length of this snake was more than a hundred yards, some say fathoms. They have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor; for which reason, ship, boat, and bark-masters, provide themselves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overfet; the serpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquisite. The particularities recounted of this animal would be incredible, were they not attested upon oath. Egede (a very creditable author) says, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-mast of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; that the body seemed to be covered with scales; the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. The body of this monster is said to be as thick as a hoghead; his skin is variegated like a tortoise

tortoise shell; and his excrement, which floats upon the surface of the water, is corrosive, and blisters the hands of the seamen if they handle it.

The good bishop says he would be under great difficulty in mentioning the kraken, or korven, were not its existence proved so strongly, as seem to put it out of all doubt. Its bulk is said to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, it resembles a number of small islands and sand-bands, on which fishes sport themselves, and seaweeds grow: upon a farther emergence, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and size, of a moderate mast, appear; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, consisting of small fishes. When he sinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous swell of the sea succeeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken perished among the rocks and cliffs of the parish of Alstahong; and his death was attended by such a stench, that the channel where it died was impassable. The existence of this fish, according to our author, accounts for many of those phenomena of floating islands, and transitory appearances in the sea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of such an animal.

The mer-men and mer-women, are said to hold their residence in the Norwegian seas: the mer-man is about eight spans long, and, undoubtedly, has as much resemblance as an ape has to the human species: a high forehead, little eyes, a flat nose, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characterise its head; its arms are short, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members resembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane: the parts of generation indicate their sexes; though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like those of fishes. The females have breasts, at which they suckle their young ones.

Curiosities.] Those of Norway are only natural, and consist of stupendous mountains, dreadful caverns, water-falls, and whirlpools. On the coast, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the sea, and by some Malestrom, or Møskøestrom. The island Moskoe, from whence this stream derives its name, lies between the mountain Hesteggen in Lofoden, and the island Ver, which are about one league distant; and between the island and coast on each side, the stream makes its way. Between Moskoe and Lofoden, it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moskoe and Ver, it is so shallow, as not to afford passage for a small ship. When it is flood, the stream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moskoe with a boisterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the sea with a violence and noise, unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth and extent; so violent, that if a ship comes near it, it is immediately drawn irresistibly into the whirl and there disappears; being absorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is dashed to pieces against the rocks; and just at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for about a quarter of an hour, it rises again in scattered fragments, scarcely to be known for the

the parts of a ship. When it is agitated by a storm, it has reached vessels at the distance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themselves in perfect security. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a situation of more horror, than of being thus driven forward by the sudden violence of an impetuous torrent, to the vortex of a whirlpool, of which the noise and turbulence still increasing as it is approached, are an earnest of quick and inevitable destruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of despair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impossible; and see before them the dreadful abyss in which they are about to be plunged and dashed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expressed the utmost terror when they find the stream irresistible. Whales are frequently carried away, and the moment they feel the force of the water they struggle against it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears who attempt to swim to the island to prey upon the sheep.

It is the opinion of Kircher, that the *Malestrom* is a sea vortex, which attracts the flood under the shore of Norway, and discharges it again in the gulph of Bothnia: but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the shattered fragments of whatever happens to be sucked down by it. The large stems of firs and pines rise again so shivered and splintered, that the pieces look as if covered with bristles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flood, occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course between the rocks.

*People, Language, Religion, } The Norwegians are a middling
and Customs of Norway. }* kind of people, between the simplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more polished manners of the Danes. They speak the same language that is used in Denmark, but their original tongue is that of Iceland. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have bishops, as those of Denmark, without temporal jurisdiction. Their viceroy, like his master, is absolute; but we may easily conceive that he makes no barbarous use of his power, because we know of few or no representations or insurrections of the people against it.

The Norwegians in general are strong, robust, and brave; but quick in resenting real or supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms, both of living and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly resembling the Saxon ancestors of the present English. Every inhabitant is an artizan, and supplies his family in all its necessities with his own manufactures; so that in Norway, as well as in Sweden and other Northern countries of Europe, there are few, by profession, who are hatters, shoemakers, taylor, tanners, weavers carpenters, smiths, and joiners. The lowest Norwegian peasant is an artist and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oatmeal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians form a proper subject of contemplation even to a philosopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished

ed with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor dreading penury: this middle state prolongs their ages surprizingly. Though their dress is accommodated to their climate, yet, by custom, instead of guarding against the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expose themselves to cold without any coverture upon their breasts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not accounted past his labour; and in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Danish majesty at Fredericshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain vestiges of their former Paganism: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpse is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In some places the mourners ask the dead person why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other such questions; frequently kneeling down and asking forgiveness, if ever they had offended the deceased.

The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardiest seamen in the world. If we are to believe their histories, they were no strangers to America long before it was discovered by Columbus. Many customs of their ancestors are yet discernible in Ireland and the North of Scotland, where they made frequent descents, and some settlements, which are generally confounded with those of the Danes. From their being the most turbulent, they are become now the most loyal subjects in Europe; which we can easily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings when a separate people.

Strength and Revenue.] By the best calculations, Norway can furnish out 14,000 excellent seamen, and above 30,000 brave soldiers, for the use of their king, without hurting either trade or agriculture. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to about 200,000 l. and, till his present Majesty's accession, the army, instead of being expensive, added considerably to his Majesty's income, by the subsidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

L A P L A N D A N D N O R W A Y.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
North division, . .	Wardhuys, or Norwegian Lapland.	Wardhuys, E. lon. 28, N. lat. 71.
Middle division, . .	Drontheim, and Bergen . . .	Drontheim, East lon. 10-30, N. lat 64. Bergen, E. lon. 6, N. lat. 60. Stavanger.
Southern division,	Anslo, or Aggerhuys	Aggerhuys, E. lon. 11. N. lat. 59. Fredericstads Anslo, or Christiana.

DENMARK PROPER.

Provinces.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Jutland, on the continent, separated from the islands by a Streight called the Lesser Belt.	Alburg	Alburg, E. lon. 10, N. lat. 57.
	Wyburg	Wyburg
	Aarhufen	Aarhufen
	Rypen	Rypen
Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea; Zealand, the chief, is divided from Sweden by a Streight called the Sound, and from Eunen by another called the Great Belt.	Sleswick	Sleswick, E. lon. 9-45, N. lat. 54-45.
	Zetland	Copenhagen, E. lon. 13, N. lat. 55-30.
	Funen	Elfenore
	Langland	Odenfee
	Laland	Rutcopping
	Falster	Naxhow
	Mona	Nycopping
	Femerer	Stege
	Alsen	Borge
		Sonderberg

DANISH TERRITORIES IN GERMANY.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Holstein, divided between the King of Denmark, the dukes of Holstein, and the Imperial Cities of Hamburg and Lubec, already mentioned in the Circle of Lower Saxony.	Holstein Proper . .	Kiel, E. lon. 10, N. lat. 54-32, subject to the Duke of Holstein Gottorp.
	Ditmarsh	Meldorp, subject to Denmark.
	Stormar	Hamburgh, E. lon. 9-40, N. lat. 54, Imperial; and Gluckstat and Altena, subj. to Denmark.
	Wagria	Lubec, E. lon. 10-35, N. lat. 54-20. Imperial; and Oldeslow and Ploen, subj. to the duke of Holstein Ploen.
In Westphalia, West of the Weser.	Oldenburg, C. . .	Oldenburg, E. lon. 7-32, N. lat. 53-35. and Delmonhurst, subj. to Denmark.
	Delmonhurst . .	

PARTICULARS OF DENMARK PROPER.

[*Lakes and Rivers.*] There are some lakes in Zealand and Jutland; but scarce one navigable river there till we come to Sleswic, or South Jutland, where we meet with the Eyder and the Tron: these run a short course from East to West, and, uniting their waters, fall into the

the German sea below Tonningen. The river Trave rises in the duchy of Holstein, and, running East, falls into the Baltic below Lubeck.

Seas.] The seas bordering on the Danish territories are, the German ocean, the Baltic, the Scaggerac sea, the Sound, which divides Zealand from Schonen; the Great Belt, which divides Zealand from Funen; and the Lesser Belt, which divides Funen from the continent of Jutland. At Elsenore, which lyes upon the streight called the Sound, being about four miles broad, the Danes take toll of all merchant-ships that pass to and from the Baltic.

Air.] As Denmark Proper is a flat country, abounding in bogs and morasses, and surrounded by the sea, they are extremely subject to fogs and bad air.

Soil and Produce.] Zealand, the chief of the islands, and the seat of the government, is a barren soil. No wheat will grow there, and they have but little good pasture; great part of it is a forest, and reserved for the king's game. Funen, the next largest island, has barely corn sufficient for the inhabitants. The island of Laland is a fruitful soil, and supplies Copenhagen with wheat. The islands of Langland, Falster, and Mona, are indifferently fruitful.

The continent of Jutland has corn sufficient for the natives, and abounds in horses and neat cattle, which are purchased by the Dutch, and grow to a prodigious size in their fat pastures. Sleswic, or South Jutland, and Holstein, abound in corn, cattle, and rich pastures; but Stormar and Ditmarsh, lying near the mouth of the Elbe, are subject to inundations.

Animals.] The same as in Sweden; but they have a good breed of horses.

Manufactures and Traffic.] Fir, and other timber, black cattle, horses, butter, stockfish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, are the natural products of the Danish dominions; and consequently are ranked under the head of exports. To these we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbid. The imports are, salt, wine, brandy, and silk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourse with England, from whence they import broad-cloaths, clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England. But nothing shews the commercial spirit of the Danes in a stronger light than their establishments in the East and West-Indies.

In 1612, Christiern IV. of Denmark established an East-India company at Copenhagen; and, soon after, four ships sailed from thence to the East-Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Danish majesty by James I. of England, who married a princess of Denmark; and in 1617 they built and fortified a castle and town at Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel. The security which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort, invited numbers of them to settle here; so that the Danish East-India company were soon rich

enough to pay to their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rixdollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a sudden, in 1620, endeavoured to possess themselves of the spice-trade at Cylon; but were defeated by the Portuguese. The truth is, they soon embroiled themselves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous assistance given them by Mr Pit, an English East-India governor, the settlement at Tranquebar must have been taken by the Rajah of Tanjour. Upon the close of the wars of Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Danish East-India company found themselves so much in debt, that they published proposals for a new subscription, for enlarging their ancient capital stock, and for fitting out ships to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Danish majesty granted a new charter to his East-India company, with vast privileges; and for some time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. We shall just mention, that the Danes likewise possess the islands of St Croix, St Thomas, and the small islands of St John, in the West-Indies; which are free ports, and celebrated for smuggling; also the fort of Christianburg, on the coast of Guinea; and carry on a considerable commerce with the Mediterranean.

Civil Constitution, Government, and Laws.] The civil constitution of Denmark, in its present despotic state, arises out of the ruins of the aristocratic powers which the nobility exercised over their inferiors with most intolerable tyranny. Formerly their kings were elective, and might be deposed by the convention of estates, which included the representatives of the peasants. The king's royalty gave him pre-eminence in the field and the courts of justice, but no revenues were attached to it; and unless he had a great estate of his own, he was obliged to live like a private nobleman. In process of time, however, the regal dignity became hereditary; or rather, the states tacitly acquiesced in that mode of government, to prevent the horrible ravages which they had experienced from civil wars, and disputed successions. Their kings of the race of Oldenburg, the present royal family, tho' some of them were brave and spirited princes, did not chuse to abridge the nobility of their powers; and a series of unsuccessful wars rendered the nation in general so miserable, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The dispute came to a short question, which was, that the nobles should submit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people then, as usual, threw their eyes towards the king for relief and protection from the oppressions of the intermediate order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the states, it was proposed that the nobles should bear their share in the common burden. Upon this, one Otta Craeg put the people in mind that the commons were no more than slaves to the lords.

This was the watch-word which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itself. Nansen, the speaker of the commons, caught hold of the term slavery, the assembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a house of their own, where they resolved to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services; and formally to establish in his family the hereditary succession to their crown.

This

This resolution was executed the next day. The bishop of Copenhagen officiated as speaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promising them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were shut; and the nobility, finding their power annihilated, submitted with the best grace they could, to confirm what had been done.

It is happy for the Danes, that ever since the year 1660, when this great revolution took place, few or no instances have happened, of abusing the despotic powers thus vested in the kings, which are at present perhaps more extensive than those of any crowned head in Europe. On the contrary, the administration of civil justice in Denmark is considered by many as a model for other nations; and some princes, his Prussian majesty particularly, have actually adopted great part of it. The code of the Danish laws is a quarto volume, drawn up in the language of the country, in so plain and perspicuous a manner, and upon such simple principles of justice, that the most ignorant may learn it; and every man may plead his own cause: and no suit is to hang in suspense beyond one year and a month. But *the king hath privilege to explain, nay, to alter and change the same as he shall think good.* In Denmark there are two inferior courts, from which appeals lye to a high right court in Copenhagen, where the king presides, assisted by his chief nobility. Other tribunals are instituted for the affairs of the revenue, army, commerce, admiralty, and criminal matters. In short, it is allowed on all hands, that the civil policy of Denmark, and its executive powers, are excellently calculated for the safety of the people as well as of the government.

Stile.] The stile of this prince is, King of Denmark and Norway, of the Goths and Vandals, Duke of Sleswic, Holstein, Stormar, and Ditmarsh, and Earl of Oldenburgh, and Delmonhurst.

Arms.] The arms of Denmark are, or, fessée of hearts gules, three lions passant-guardant azure, crowned, languid, and armed, for Denmark. Gules, a lion rampant, or, crowned and armed, in his paws a battle-ax, argent, for Norway. Gules, a paschal lamb argent, supporting a flag of the same, marked with a cross: gules, for Jutland. Or, two lions passant-guardant, azure, for Sleswic. Gules, a fish crowned argent, for Iceland. Over these a cross argent, on the centre of which are placed the arms of Ditmarsh, viz. Gules, a cavalier armed argent. Gules, a nettle leaf open and charged in the middle with a little escutcheon; the whole argent, for Holstein. Gules, a cross pattesfitchee argent, for Oldenburgh. The shield surrounded with a collar of the order of the elephant.

Revenues.] His Danish majesty's revenues arise from three sources: the impositions he lays upon his own subjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demesne lands, including confiscations. Wine, salt, tobacco, and provisions of all kinds, are moderately taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houses, and poll-money, raise a considerable sum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 sixdollars towards her portion. The internal taxes of Denmark are very

very uncertain, because they may be abated or raised at the king's will. Customs, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by strangers, arise chiefly from foreign ships that pass through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow streight between Schonen and the island of Zealand. These tolls are in proportion to the size of the ship and value of the cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Danish majesty's revenue, has more than once thrown the Northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often disputed by the English and Dutch; and the Swedes, who commanded the opposite side of the pass, for some time, refused to pay it; but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majesty, George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the same rates as are paid by the subjects of Great Britain and the Netherlands. The toll is paid at Elfenore, a town seated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic sea, and about eighteen miles distant from Copenhagen. The Danes also claim a right to the toll of the Weser, which is paid by all ships that navigate on that river, except those belonging to Prussia. The toll is paid at Elsfleet, and amounts to about 40,000*l.* No estimate can be made of the toll at Elfenore, nor of the gross revenue of Denmark; though it is generally thought to amount at present to about 700,000*l.* a-year; a sum which, in that country, goes far, and maintains a splendid court, and powerful armaments both by sea and land.

Military and Marine Strength.] The army of Denmark, in time of peace, consists of 30,000 cavalry and infantry, exclusive of militia; but in time of war, the regular army hath mustered near 50,000 men. His present majesty seems determined to re-establish the naval force of his kingdom, and to rank himself as a maritime power. It must be acknowledged that he has great invitation to such a conduct; his subjects in general are excellent seamen; Copenhagen has a most capacious sea-port; and there must always be, by a regulation of the present king, thirty-six ships of the line in a condition to be readily fitted for sea, besides a proportionate number of frigates, sloops, &c. This fleet can very easily be manned on any emergency; every seafaring man must, once in his life, for six years, be ready to serve his king and country, when called upon, and for that purpose is registered. The six years being over, no more service is required of him. The number of seamen in Denmark and Norway thus registered amounts to 20,000 men, besides which there is always a body of 4000 sailors regimented for sudden occasions, and in constant pay at Copenhagen, of which one-fourth are ship-carpenters, smiths, rope-makers, caulkers, &c. or, what we call in England, dock-yard-men. Tho' great numbers of the registered seamen may, in time of peace, by the way of furlow from their officers, get their bread on board of merchant ships, and cannot therefore be present at a minute's warning, yet there is hardly ever occasion to raise men by the beat of drum, and much less so by the odious method of pressing.

Orders of Knighthood in Denmark.] These are two; that of Dannebrogue, which is said to be of the highest antiquity; and that of the

the elephant, which was instituted by Christian I. in honour of his son's marriage, and is conferred only on persons of the highest quality, and the most extraordinary merit: the number of its members, besides the sovereign, are thirty.

Persons of the Danes, &c.] The Danes are usually tall, strong-bodied men, with good complexions, and fair hair, red or yellow, which neither men nor women endeavour to conceal, but take great pains to curl. His Danish majesty's subjects are reckoned at less than three millions, which is not a number proportional to the extent of his dominions; but it must be observed, that vast tracts are uncultivated, and consequently not inhabited: besides, marriages are not, in general, entered upon so soon as in some other countries.

Habits and Genius.] As to their habits, they usually imitate the French dress, but in Winter wrap themselves up in furs or wool, like their neighbours. Not many of them are happy in a bright genius, nor in invention or imitation; neither are they deeply learned, nor excellent mechanics. Their vices too are the same as their neighbours, intemperance and drunkenness. The common people are said to be poor-spirited wretches, nothing of the warlike enterprising temper of their ancestors remaining; given to cheating and tricking, and extremely jealous of being imposed on by others. The Norwegians, indeed, are a brave, hardy people, and have much more courage and vigour than the Danes, by whom they are, however, hardly used, since they have been a province of Denmark.

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of these than the other parts of his Danish majesty's dominions, if we except the contents of the royal museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a numerous collection of both. Besides artificial skeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Danish artist who was blind, there are to be seen three famous antique drinking vessels; two of gold, and one of an unknown metal, perhaps a composed one, like the Corinthian brass, and all the three in the form of a hunting-horn: those of gold seem to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raised hieroglyphical figures on their outside, they probably were made use of in religious ceremonies: they are about two feet nine inches long, weigh each 102 ounces, and contain two English pints and a half; one was found in the diocese of Ripen, in the year 1639, and the fellow to it nearly in the same place, about 40 years ago, by a milk-maid. The other, of unknown metal, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which they say was presented to Otho I. Duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. Some, however, are of opinion, that this vessel was made by Christiern I. king of Denmark, the first of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. Several vessels of different metals, and the same form, have been found in the North of England, and are probably of Danish original. This museum is likewise furnished with a prodigious number of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments; some Indian curiosities, and a set of medals ancient and modern. Many curious astronomical instruments are likewise

likewise placed in the round tower at Copenhagen; which is so contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The country of Anglen, about 30 miles long, lying between Flensburg and Sleswic, is also esteemed a curiosity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great Britain, and the ancestors of the bulk of the modern English. But the greatest rarities in his Danish majesty's dominions are those ancient inscriptions upon rocks that are mentioned by antiquaries and historians, and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the use of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, were known. These characters are Runic, and so imperfectly understood by the learned themselves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be historical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo Grammaticus, has exhibited specimens of several of those inscriptions.

Cities and chief Buildings.] Copenhagen, the capital city of Denmark, is situated on the fine island of Zealand, and makes a magnificent appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by ramparts with a citadel or castle, for the defence of its seaport. It contains ten parish churches, besides a very fine one for Calvinists. Copenhagen is adorned with some public and private palaces, as they are called, and some hospitals. Its streets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in their lanes chiefly of timber: But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, which admits indeed only of one ship to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the streets have canals, and quays for ships to lye close to the houses; and its naval arsenal is said far to exceed that of Venice.

The finest country palace belonging to his Danish majesty lyes about twenty English miles from Copenhagen, and is called Fredericshurg. It is a most magnificent house, and built in the modern taste; but ill-contrived, and worse situated; being in a most unhealthy soil. While the kings of Denmark reside, as they often do, at this palace, they lay aside great part of their state, and mingle with their subjects in their diversions both of the court and the field.

The king's park contains a royal country seat, called the hermitage; which is remarkable for the disposition of its apartments, and the quaintness of its furniture; particularly a machine, which conveys the dishes to and from the king's table in the second story. The chief ecclesiastical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roschild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments still remain. Joined to this cathedral, by a covered passage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

Language.] The language of the gentry is High Dutch, the same with that of the Germans; but the common people use a dialect of the ancient Teutonic: the Pater-noster whereof is of the following tenor: *Vor Fador som er i himmelin; belligt worde dit naßn; tilkomme dit rige; worde din villie paa jorden som i himmelin; gif os i dag vort daglige brød; og forlad os vor skyld som vi forlade vore skyldener; og leed os ick i fristelse, men frels os fra ont; thi roget er dit og traft og herghheds evighed. Amen.*

Religion.]

Religion.] The religion of Denmark is the Lutheran, which does not differ in any respect from that of Sweden, already described, nor do they tolerate any other denomination of Christians.

Bishopricks.] The Bishopricks are Copenhagen, Arhusen, Alburg, Ripen, Hilburg, and Sleswic; besides which there are several superintendants, which differ little from bishops.

Universities.] The universities are those of Copenhagen and Kiel. For some years past the kings have employed several of their ingenious men to travel, and bring home the improvements of other nations; and also to permit their young gentry to serve, for some time, in the navies of the English and others. The travels of *Norden* into Egypt, and some other places of the East, have furnished the curious with better drawings and accounts of some antiquities than they were possessed of before his time. His present Danish majesty visited England and France, that he might himself see the improvements and manners of other nations: and he has, since his return to Denmark, greatly benefited his subjects in many particulars.

G O L D C O I N .

l. s. d.

The gold ducat of Denmark is 0 9 3

S I L V E R C O I N S .

The old bank dollar of Hamburg 0 4 6

The old bank dollar of Lubec 0 4 7

The four mark piece of Denmark 0 2 8

A rix-mark 0 0 11

A slet-mark 0 0 9

Besides which they have copper coins of several values, from a farthing to a crown and more.

History.] We owe the chief history of Denmark, to a very extraordinary phenomenon, viz. the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the person of Saxo Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century,) when it was lost all over other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other historians of his age, has adopted; and, at the same time, ennobled by his style, the most ridiculous absurdities of remote antiquity. We can, however, collect enough from him to conclude, that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Irish, and other Northern nations, had their bards; who recounted the military achievements of their heroes; and that their first histories were written in verse. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden,) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even

• By Scythia may be understood all those Northern countries of Europe and Asia, (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Russians, and Tartars, see the Introduction,) whose inhabitants overturned and peopled the Russian empire, and continued so late as the 13th century to issue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more Southern and fertile

Even the name of the first Christian Danish king is uncertain; and those of the people whom they commanded were so blended together, that it is impossible to give a precise idea of the old Scandinavian history. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers; that, as far back as the year of Christ 500, they insulted all the sea-coasts of Europe; that they settled in Ireland, where they built stone houses; and that they became masters of England, and some parts of Scotland, about the year 1012; both which kingdoms still retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the history of Denmark and that of England, under the Danish princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint resemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themselves the superiority over the English.

In the kingdom of Denmark, very few interesting events preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted that throne; and partly by her address, and partly by hereditary right, she formed the union of Calmar; by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Sweden, Denmark and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly stiled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar fell to nothing; but Norway still continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448 the crown of Denmark fell to Christian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended, and in 1536 the Protestant religion was established in Denmark by that wife and polite prince Christian III.

Christian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was chosen for the head of the Protestant league formed against the house of Austria; but, though brave in his own person, he was in danger of losing his dominions, when he was succeeded in that command by the famous Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Christian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his son Frederick III. consented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, persuaded him to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden; which had almost cost him his crown in 1657. Charles stormed the fortress of Fredericstadt; and, in the succeeding Winter, he marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprised the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyburg; and marched over the Great Belt, to besiege Copenhagen itself. Cromwell, the English usurper, interposed, and Frederick defended his capital with great magnanimity, till the peace of Roschild; by which Frederick ceded the provinces of Holland, Bleking, and Scania, the island of Bornholm, Bahus, and Drontheim, in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederick sought to elude those severe terms; but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more besieged Copenhagen by sea and land. The steady intrepid conduct of Frederick under these misfortunes endeared him to his subjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence, till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat that

tile kingdoms of Europe; hence, by Sir William Temple, and other historians, they are termed *the Northern Hive, the Mother of nations, the Store-house of Europe.*

that of Sweden. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederick; who shewed on every occasion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raise the siege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the English fleet, under Montague, appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to besiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital; by which the island of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the island of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not restore to Denmark all she had lost, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederick, under the most imminent dangers, and his attention to the safety of his subjects, even preferable to his own, endeared him so much in their eyes, that they rendered him absolute. Frederick was succeeded, in 1670, by his son Christian V. who obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roschild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war; which Christian obstinately continued till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landscroon; and he had almost exhausted his dominions in his military operations, till he was in a manner abandoned by all his allies, and forced to sign a treaty on the terms prescribed by France in 1679. Christian, however, did not desist from his military attempts; and at last he became the ally and subsidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains. After a vast variety of treating and fighting with the Holsteiners, Hamburgers, and other Northern powers, he died in 1699. He was succeeded by Frederick IV. who, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions upon Holstein; and probably must have become master of that duchy, had not the English and Dutch fleets raised the siege of Tonningen; while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was no more than sixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to assist his brother-in-law the duke of Holstein. Charles, probably, would have made himself master of Copenhagen, had not his Danish majesty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty, concluded with the States General, Frederick obliged himself to furnish a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and who afterwards did great service against the French.

Notwithstanding this peace, Frederick was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while Charles was an exile at Bender, he marched through Holstein into Swedish Pomerania; and, in the year 1712, to Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadesbusch, who laid his favourite city of Altena in ashes. Frederick revenged himself, by seizing great part of the ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general, count Steinbock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the successes of Frederick were so great, by taking Tonningen and Stralsund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wismar and Pomerania, that his allies began to suspect he was aiming at the sovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of

Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war against Denmark with a most embittered spirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the siege of Fredericshal, Frederick durst not refuse the offer of his Britannic majesty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in consequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in possession of the duchy of Sleswic. Frederick died in the year 1730, after having, two years before, seen his capital reduced to ashes, by an accidental fire. His son and successor, Christian Frederick, made no other use of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happiness of his subjects; whom he eased of many oppressive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction †, Christian sent 6000 men to the assistance of the emperor, during the dispute of the succession to the crown of Poland. Tho' he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburgh. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver merks. He had, two years after, viz. 1738, a dispute with his Britannic majesty, about the little lordship of Steinhorft, which had been mortgaged to the latter by the duke of Holstein Lawenburg, and which Christian said belonged to him. Some blood was spilt during the contest; in which Christian, it is thought, never was in earnest. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himself of his Britannic majesty's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Christian a subsidy of 70,000*l.* a-year, on condition of keeping in readiness 7000 troops for the protection of Hanoover; which was a gainful bargain for Denmark. Two years after he seized some Dutch ships for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Christian had so great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his son to be declared successor to his then Swedish majesty. Some steps for that purpose were certainly taken; but whatever Christian's views might have been, the design was frustrated by the jealousy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of seeing all Scandinavia subject to one family. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His son and successor, Frederick V. had, in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic majesty. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. For it was by his intervention that the treaty of Closter-seven was concluded between his royal highness the late duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to his present Danish majesty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766. He was succeeded by his

† An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to support the house of Austria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male issue.

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his son Christian VII. and we have already mentioned the many fair prospects which this prince's reign has opened, for the good of his people. But a late fatal event, too recent to be forgotten, seems, at present, to have drawn a veil over these pleasing expectations; and what the consequence may prove, must be left to time, the great revealer of all events.

BRITISH ISLANDS.

Situation.] THESE islands, consisting of Great Britain, Ireland, the isles of Wight, Scilly, Man, the Hebrides, or Western islands of Scotland, and the Orcades, are situate in the Atlantic ocean, between 50 and 60 degrees of North latitude, a very little North of France, and West of Germany and the Netherlands.

Name.] The name of Britain, according to Mr Camden, is derived from the word Brit, which, in the language of the ancient inhabitants, signified painted or stained; the natives using to paint their naked bodies, and wear no cloathes over them, when they were engaged in any laborious employment or exercise, particularly in hunting, and in the field of battle. But others entirely reject this etymology, and derive it from two Phœnician words, signifying *the land of tin*; because the Phœnicians formerly brought great quantities of tin from this island.

Division.] Great Britain being divided into South and North Britain, or into the kingdoms of England and Scotland, we shall begin with the description of England, and fix the first meridian at London.

E N G L A N D.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 360	} between {	50 and 56 North latitude.
Breadth 300		2 East and 6-20 West longitude.

Climate and Boundaries.] THE longest day, in the Northern parts, contains seventeen hours thirty minutes; and the shortest, in the Southern, near eight hours. It is bounded on the North, by that

that part of the island called Scotland; on the East, by the German ocean; on the West, by St George's channel; and on the South by the English channel, which parts it from France.

This situation, by the sea washing it on three sides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, so that the inhabitants on the sea-coasts are often visited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the same degrees of latitude, are subject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, especially those who live on a dry soil. To this situation likewise we are to ascribe that perpetual verdure for which England is admired and envied all over the world, occasioned by the refreshing showers and the warm vapours of the sea.

Name and Divisions, ancient and modern.] Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*; some derive it from a Celtic word, signifying a level country; but we prefer the common etymology, of its being derived, as has been already mentioned, from Anglen, a province now subject to his Danish majesty, which furnished a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this island. In the time of the Romans the whole island went by the name of *Britannia*. The Western tract of England, which is almost separated from the rest by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called *Wales*, or the land of Strangers, because inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were strangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England, (for they never did Scotland,) they divided it into,

1. *Britannia Prima*, which contained the Southern parts of the kingdom.
2. *Britannia Secunda*, containing the Western parts, comprehending *Wales*; and,
3. *Maxima Caesariensis*, which reached from the Trent as far Northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To these divisions some add, the *Flavia Caesariensis*, which they suppose to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxon invasion took place, about the year 450, and when they were established in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themselves, after the manner of the other Northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the most instrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political republic, consisting of seven kingdoms; but in time of war, a chief was chosen out of the seven kings; for which reason we call it a political republic, its constitution greatly resembling that of ancient Greece,

Kingdoms

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, usually stiled the Saxon Heptarchy

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief towns.
1. Kent, founded by Hengist in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent	Canterbury
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Sussex Surry	Chichester Southwark
3. East-Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk Suffolk Cambridge With the isle of Ely	Norwich Bury St Edmonds Cambridge Ely
4. West-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, which finally swallowed up all the other states in 827, and ended at the conquest in 1066.	Cornwall Devon Dorset Somerset Wilts Hants Berks Lancaster York Durham	Launceston Exeter Dorchester Bath Salisbury Winchester Reading Lancaster York Durham
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida, in 574, and ended in 792.	Cumberland Westmorland Northumberland and Scotland to the Firth of Edinburgh	Carlisle Appleby Newcastle
6. East-Saxons, founded by Erche-win in 527, and ended in 746.	Essex Middlesex, and part of Hertford Gloucester Hereford Worcester Warwick Leicester Rutland Northampton Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Buckingham Oxford Stafford Derby Salop Nottingham Chester And the other part of Hertford	London Gloucester Hereford Worcester Warwick Leicester Oakham Northampton Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Aylebury Oxford Stafford Derby Shrewsbury Nottingham Chester Hertford

We have been the more solicitous to preserve those divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which, to this day, prevail in England, and which took their rise from different institutions under the Saxons. The great Alfred divided England into counties, or rather he revived those divisions; and that wise prince, for the better preservation of regularity and order, subdivided each county into treshings or trithings; wapentakes or hundreds; and tithings. The treshing was a third part of a county, and does still subsist in the large county of York, where, by an easy corruption of the word trithing, it is called riding. Hundred was a district containing a hundred families; and the tithing a district of ten families.

Since the Norman conquest, England has been divided into six circuits, each circuit containing a certain number of counties. Two judges are appointed for each circuit, which they visit annually, for administering justice to the subjects, who are at a distance from the capital. These circuits and counties are:

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief towns.
1. Home Circuit.	Essex . .	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford .	Hertford, St Albans, Royston, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Bishops-Stortford, Berkhamsted, Hemsted, and Barnet.
	Kent . .	Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feversham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerness, Tunbridge, Margate, Gravesend, and Milton.
	Surry . .	Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, Richmond, Wandsworth, Battersea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagshot, Egham, and Dorking.
	Suffex . .	Chichester, Lewis, Rye, East-Grinstead, Hastings, Horsham, Midhurst, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelsea, Battle, BRIGHTHELMSTONE, and Petworth.
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Bucks . .	Aylesbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great-Marlow, Stony-Stratford, and Newport-Pagnel.
	Bedford .	Bedford, Amptill, Woodburn, Dunstable, Luton, and Biggleswade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St Ives, Kimbolton, Godmanchester, St Neot's, Ramsey, and Yaxley.
		Circuits.

Circuits. Counties.

Chief towns.

2. Norfolk Circuit continued.	Cambridge	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royston, and Wisbich.
	Suffolk	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leostoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Halefworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Franglingham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Easterbergholt.
	Norfolk	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.
	Oxon	Oxford, Banbury, Chippingnorton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorchester, Woodstock, and Tame.
3. Oxford Circuit.	Berks	Reading, Windfor, Abingdon, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farrington, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Gloucester	Gloucester, Tewksbury, Cirencester, part of Bristol, Campden, Stow, Berkley, Dursley, Leechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marshfield.
	Worcester	Worcester, Evesham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminster, and Pershore.
	Monmouth	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford	Hereford, Lemster, Weobly, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Ross.
4. Midland Circuit.	Salop	Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Bishop's-castle, Witchurch, Oswestry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford	Stafford, Lichfield, Newcastle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Uttoxeter, and Stone.
	Warwick	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulcester, Nuneaton, and Atherton.
	Leicester	Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Bosworth, and Harborough.
	Derby	Derby, Chesterfield, Workworth, Bakewell, and Balfover.
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, Ealt

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief towns.
	Nottingham continued.	East and West Redford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Worktop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln	Lincoln, Stamford, Boston, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New-Sleaford, Great Grimsby, Gainfborough, Louth, and Horn-castle.
4. Midland Circuit continued.	Rutland	Oakham and Uppingham.
	Northampton	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Lackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thorpston, Towcester, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
	Hants	Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christohureh, Petersfield, Ly-mington, Ringwood, Rumfey, Arlesford; and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the isle of Wight.
	Wilts	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminster.
	Dorset	Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborne, Shaftsbury, Pool, Blandford, Bridport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
5. Western Circuit.	Somerset	Bath, Wells, Bristol in part, Taunton, Bridgwater, Ilchester, Minehead, Milbourn-Port, Glastenbury, Willington, Dulverton, Dunster, Watchet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croscomb, and Froome.
	Devon	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstaple, Bideford, Tiverton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, Topsham, Okehamp-ton, Ashburton, Credeton, Moulton, Torrington, Totness, Axminster, Plymton, Honiton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall	Launceston, Falmoth, Truro, Sal-tash, Bodmyn, St Ives, Padstow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Liskard, Lestwithiels, Helfton, Penzance, and Redruth.

Circuit.	Counties.	Chief towns.
6. Northern Circuit.	York . .	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverley, Northallerton, Burlington, Knaresborough, Barnetley, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaster, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirsk, Gisborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
	Durham .	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Auckland.
	Northumberl.	Newcastle, Tinnmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaster . .	Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkhead, and Newton.
	Westmoreland	Appleby, Kendal, Lonsdale, Kirkby Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglass, Egremont, Kewick, Workington, and Jerby.

Middlesex and Cheshire are not comprehended in the above circuits; the former being the seat of the supreme courts of justice, and the latter a county palatine. Besides the county palatine of Chester, there are two others, Lancaster and Durham; but the two latter are now included in the circuits. There is still a court of chancery in Lancaster and Durham, with a chancellor; and there is a court of exchequer at Chester, of a mixed kind, both for law and equity, of which the chamberlain of Chester is judge: there are also other justices in the counties palatine to determine civil actions and pleas of the crown.

Circuit.	Counties.	Chief towns.
Counties exclusive of the Circuits.	Middlesex	LONDON, first meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton-court.
	Cheshire	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodilahm, and Haulton.

CIRCUITS OF WALES.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief towns.
North-East Circuit.	Flint . . .	Flint, St Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh . . .	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgomery . . .	Montgomery, Llanvlyin, and Welchpool.
North-West Circuit.	Anglesey . . .	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon . . .	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullilly.
	Merioneth . . .	Delgelly, Bala, and Harlegh.
South-East Circuit.	Radnor . . .	Radnor, Presteaton, and Knighton.
	Brecon . . .	Brecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan . . .	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansea.
South-West Circuit.	Pembroke . . .	St David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Tenby, Fishard, and Milfordhaven.
	Cardigan . . .	Cardigan, Aberistwith, and Llanbadarn-vawr.
	Caermarth . . .	Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanimdover, Llandilovawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy.

I N E N G L A N D.

40 Counties, which send up to parliament . . .	80 knights.
25 Cities, (Ely none, London four) . . .	50 citizens.
167 Boroughs, two each . . .	334 Burgeffes.
5 Boroughs, (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrers, and Monmouth) . . .	5 burgeffes.
2 Universities . . .	4 representatives.
8 Cinqueports, (Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford,) . . .	16 barons.

W A L E S.

12 Counties . . .	12 knights.
12 Boroughs, (Pembroke two, Merioneth none) . . .	12 burgeffes.

S C O T L A N D.

33 Shires . . .	30 knights.
67 Cities and Boroughs . . .	15 burgeffes.

Total 558

Besides

Besides the fifty-two counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, consisting of certain districts, to which the liberties and jurisdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by charter from the throne. Thus the city of London is a county distinct from Middlesex; and the cities of York, Chester, Bristol, Norwich, Worcester, Kingston upon Hull, and Newcastle upon Tyne, are counties of themselves, distinct from those in which they lie. The same may be said of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and has within its jurisdiction a small territory of two miles on the North side of the river.

Under the name of a town boroughs and cities are contained; for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is so called, because it sends up burgesses to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and some not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they still send burgesses to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at present hath, a bishop; for if the bishoprick is dissolved, yet the city remaineth. To have suburbs proveth it to be a city. Some cities are also counties, as before-mentioned.

Soil, Air, Seasons, and Water.] The soil of England and Wales differ in each county, not so much from the nature of the ground, though that must be admitted to occasion a very considerable alteration, as from the progress which the inhabitants of each county has made in the cultivation of land and garden, the draining of marshes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China. To enter upon particular specimens and proofs of these improvements would require a large volume of itself: All that can be said therefore is, in general, that if no unkindly seasons happen, England produces corn, not only sufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring immense sums of ready money for her exports. The benefit, however, from those exports have sometimes tempted the inhabitants to carry out of the kingdom more grain than could be conveniently spared, and have laid the poor under distress; for which reason exportations have been sometimes checked by government. No nation in the world exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to such perfection, that the rarest of foreign fruits have been cultivated there, and that with success. If any farther proof of this should be required, let it be remembered, that London, and its neighbourhood, though peopled by about 1,000,000 inhabitants, is plentifully supplied with all kinds of roots, fruits, and kitchen-stuff, from grounds within twelve miles distance.

The soil of England seems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber, and the plantations of trees round the houses of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peasants, are delightful and astonishing at the same time. Some have observed a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the vast fleets that England put to sea; but as no public complaints of that kind have been heard, it may be supposed that

that great stores are still in reserve; unless it may be thought that our ship-yards are partly supplied from America or the Baltic.

As to air, we can add but little to what has been already said concerning the climate. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic ocean by Westerly winds, but they are ventilated by winds and storms: So that in this respect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate constitutions, more disagreeable than unsalubrious. It cannot, however, be denied, that in England the weather is so excessively capricious, and unfavourable to certain constitutions, that many of the inhabitants are obliged to fly to foreign countries, for a renovation of their health. Many, especially foreigners, have attributed that remarkable self-dissatisfaction of the English, which too often proceeds to acts of suicide, to their air and climate; but however these may operate, the evil probably lies in the peoples manner of living, which is more gross and luxurious than that of any other nation.

The champain parts of England are generally supplied with excellent springs and fountains, though a discerning palate may perceive that they commonly contain some mineral impregnation. In many high lying parts of the country the inhabitants are greatly distressed for water, and supply themselves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The constitutions of the English, and the various diseases to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquisitive after salubrious waters, for the recovery and preservation of their health, so that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The most celebrated are the hot baths of Bath and Bristol, in Somersetshire, and of Buxton, in Derbyshire: The mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epsom, Dulwich, Aëton, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea-water is used as commonly as any other for medicinal purposes; and so delicate are the tones of the English fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the sea-water of one coast and that of another.

Face of the Country, and Mountains.] The industry of the English is, and has been such as to supply the absence of those favours which nature has so lavishly bestowed upon some foreign climates, and, in many respects, even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful scenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently swelling, and both of them forming prospects equal to the most luxuriant imagination, the corn and meadow-ground, the intermixtures of inclosures and plantations, the noble seats, comfortable houses, chearful villages, and well-stocked farms, often rising in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the most vivid colours of nature, are inexpressible. The most barren spots are not without their verdure, but nothing can give us a higher idea of the English industry, than by observing that some of the most beautiful counties in the kingdom are naturally the most barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be safely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its prospects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though

Though England is full of delightful rising grounds, and the most enchanting slopes, yet it contains few mountains. The most noted are the peak in Derbyshire, the Endle in Lancashire, the Wolds in Yorkshire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worcestershire, Cotswold in Gloucestershire, the Wrekin in Shropshire; with those of Plinlimmon and Snowden in Wales. In general, however, Wales, and the Northern parts, may be termed mountainous.

Rivers and Lakes.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence; the Thames, the noblest perhaps in the world, rises on the confluence of Gloucestershire, and after receiving the many tributary streams of other rivers, it passes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windsor. From thence to Kingston, where formerly it met the tide, which, since the building of Westminster-bridge, is said to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Essex, it widens in its progress till it falls into the sea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ships to London-bridge; but for a more particular description the reader must consult the map. It was formerly a matter of reproach to England, among foreigners, that so capital a river should have so few bridges; those of London and Kingston (which is of wood,) being the only two it had from the Nore to the last mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in some measure owing to the dearth of materials for building stone-bridges, but perhaps more to the fondness which the English, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The vast increase of riches, commerce, and inland trade, are now multiplying bridges; and some think the world cannot parallel for commodiousness, architecture, and workmanship, those lately erected at Westminster and Black-Friars. Battersea, Putney, Kew, and Hampton-court, have now bridges likewise over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-spirited proprietors of the grounds on both sides.

The river Medway, which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the mouth of the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham, where the men of war are laid up. The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Plinlimmon-hill, in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welch-pool; runs East to Shrewsbury; then turning South, visits Bridgenorth, Worcester, and Tewkesbury, where it receives the Upper Avon; after having passed Gloucester, it takes a South-West direction; is, near its mouth, increased by the Wye and Ulre, and discharges itself into the Bristol-channel, near King-road; and there the great ships, which cannot get up to Bristol, lye. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and running South-East, by Newcastle-under-line, divides that county into two parts; then turning North-East on the confines of Derbyshire, visits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnshire, and being joined by the Ouse, and several other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the sea South-East of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England are the Ouse (which is a Gaelic

Gaelic word signifying water in general,) which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn, in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from West to East thro' Northumberland, and falls into the German sea at Tynmouth below Newcastle. The Tees runs from West to East, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls into the German sea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from West to East on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from South to North through Westmoreland and Cumberland, and passing by Carlisle falls into Solway Firth, below that city. The lower Avon runs West through Wiltshire to Bath, and then dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, runs to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from East to West through Cumberland, and passing by Cockermouth, falls into the Irish sea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from East to West through Lancashire, and, passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish sea. The Mersey, which runs from the South-East to the North-West through Cheshire, and then dividing Cheshire from Lancashire, passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish sea a little below that town; and the Dee rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish channel below Chester.

The lakes of England are but few, though it is plain from history and antiquity, and indeed in some places from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been very frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land by industry. The chief lakes now remaining, are Soham mere, Wittlesea mere, and Ramsey mere, in the isle of Ely, in Cambridgeshire. All these meres in a rainy season are overflowed, and form a lake of forty or fifty miles in circumference. Winander mere lyes in Westmoreland, and some small lakes in Lancashire go by the name of Derwent waters.

Forests.] The first Norman kings of England converted immense tracts of grounds into forests, for the benefit of hunting, and these were governed by laws peculiar to themselves, so that it was necessary, about the time of passing the magna charta, to form them into a sort of code, called the forest-laws; and justices in eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those vast tracts were disforested, and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than sixty-nine, are those of Windsor, New-forest, the forest of Dean, and Sherwood forest. Those forests produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash, and beech, besides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times, England contained large woods, if not forests, of chefnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purposes of building, as appears from many great houses still standing, in which the chefnut beams and roofs remain still fresh and undecayed, tho' some of them above 600 years old.

Metals and Minerals.] Among the minerals, the tin-mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They are said to have been known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter especially, some ages before that

that of the Christian era. An ore called Mundie is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded, till about seventy years ago Sir Gilbert Clark discovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is said now to bring in 150,000*l.* a-year, and to equal in goodness the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis caliminaris for making brass. Those tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws, and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Cornish miners alone are said to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewise been discovered in Cornwall, and the English lead is impregnated with silver. The English coined silver is particularly known by roses, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonshire, and other counties of England, produce marble, but the best kind, which resembles Egyptian granite, is excessively hard to work. Quarries of free-stone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheshire yield allum and salt-pits. The English fullers earth is of such consequence to the cloathing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under the severest penalties. Pit and sea-coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the bishoprick of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is a valuable article.

Vegetable Productions.] Kent is famous for its orchards of apples and cherries; but no counties afford that plenty of apples for cyder as Herefordshire and Devonshire, where that liquor has a body almost equal to white-wine. Besides apples, pears, and cherries, already mentioned, there are great variety of other excellent fruits, such as peaches, nectarines, apricots, plumbs, grapes, strawberries, raspberries, currants, gooseberries, &c. But they have not that delicious flavour as in hotter climates, especially in wet years. In Essex and Cambridge there is fields of saffron, and in Bedfordshire and Bucks, wood for dying. Their kitchen-gardens abound in all kinds of pot-herbs. London, and its neighbourhood, containing near one million of inhabitants, is, in general, plentifully supplied with all kinds of herbage fit for the table, from gardens and fields surrounding, within the distance of about twelve miles: a scarcity of garden-stuff is seldom experienced but by a remarkable severe Winter. An immense quantity of all kinds of grain is produced in every part of the kingdom, which cannot be reduced to calculation.

Animals.] The kingdom affords neat cattle, sheep, horses, asses, and some mules, goats, red and fallow-deer, hares, rabbits, dogs, foxes, squirrels, ferrets, weazels, lizzards, otters, badgers, hedgehogs, cats, pole-cats, rats, mice, and moles. The oxen are the largest and best that are to be met with any where: there are a lesser sort bred in Wales and the North, the flesh of which is as delicious as the former. The sheep are valued for their fleeces and flesh; those of Lincolnshire are vastly large; but the flesh of the small down mutton is the best; and the wool of both is said to exceed any in Europe. It is computed there are no less than twelve millions of fleeces shorn annually;

which, at a medium of eighteen pence a fleece, makes 900,000*l.* and, when manufactured, makes five times as much, viz. four millions and a half. The horses for the saddle and chace are beautiful creatures, about fifteen hands high, and extremely well proportioned; and their speed is such, that it is an ordinary thing to run twenty miles in less than an hour, by five or six minutes. The horses for draught, either for coach or waggon, are scarce any where to be paralleled; and of these the cavalry in the army consists: there are not better charging horses in the world.

The tame fowls are turkeys, peacocks, poultry, geese, swans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild are, bustards, wild-geese, wild-ducks, teal, pigeon, plover, pheasants, partridges, wood-cocks, grouse, quail, snipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of various kinds, blackbirds, thrushes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, &c. and of late they breed great numbers of canary-birds in aviaries.

The strength, courage, and fidelity of the English mastiff-dog, and also the courage and ferocity of the bull-dog, and game-cock, are not to be paralleled among creatures of the like kind in any country. A true bred bull-dog will suffer death rather than quit his hold, and will endeavour to run at the bull even tho' his legs are cut off; and a game-cock, of a true breed, never quits his adversary while life remains in either: but these qualities degenerate when the creatures are transported to other countries.

England abounds in a great variety of excellent river-fish, such as carps, tench, eels, pike or jacks, salmon, trouts, perch, smelts, gudgeons, plaice, flounders, barbles, roach, daice, shad, mullet, haddock, and bream. The seas produce cod-fish, herrings, pilchards, oysters, lobsters, crabs, shrimps, and all manner of shell-fish. The herrings and pilchards are exported to the Streights in great quantities, and produce very valuable returns of the produce of those countries in the Mediterranean; but the Dutch send abroad forty times the quantity of herrings the English do, especially to Germany and the Baltic. There is also a cod-fishery on the Dogger-bank, a sand between Britain and Holland, where both the English and Dutch take great quantities of that kind of fish.

Commerce and Manufactures] It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raised the English to be, at this day, the first and most powerful people in the world. It was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to extend her commerce. She planned some settlements in America, Virginia particularly, but left the expence attending them to be defrayed by her subjects; and indeed she was too parsimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial schemes for the English trade. The East-India company owes to him their success and existence, and British America saw her most flourishing colonies rise under him and his family.

The present system of English politicks may properly be said to have taken rise in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the Protestant religion was established, which naturally allied the nation to the reformed states, and made all the Popish powers her enemies.

As the chief trade of Europe, so the chief maritime power was at first

first in the hands of the Portuguese and Spaniards, who, by a compact, to which the consent of other princes was not asked, had divided the newly-discovered countries between them; but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being seized by him, he was master of the ships of the two nations, with which he kept all the coasts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada, he had raised at a vast expence for the conquest of England, was destroyed; which put a stop, and almost an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch revolted; and, after a struggle, in which they were assisted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their system of government, and some remission of the war gave them leisure to form schemes of future prosperity, they easily perceived, that, as their territories were narrow, and their numbers small, they could preserve themselves only by that power which is the consequence of wealth; and that by a people whose country produced only the necessaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by the transportation of the products of one country into another.

From this necessity, thus justly estimated, arose a plan of commerce, which was for many years prosecuted with an industry and success never seen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impassable bogs, erected themselves into high and mighty states, who set the greatest monarchs at defiance, whose alliance was courted by the proudest, and whose power was dreaded by the fiercest nations. By the establishment of this state, there arose to England a new ally, and a new rival.

At this time France began first to rise into power, and from defending her own provinces with difficulty and fluctuating success, to threaten her neighbours with incroachments and devastations. Henry IV. having, after a long struggle, obtained the crown, and composed the disputes between the Protestants and Papists, so as to obtain, at least, a truce for both parties, was at leisure to accumulate treasure, and raise forces which he proposed to have employed in a design of settling for ever the balance of Europe. Of this great scheme he lived not to see the vanity or feel the disappointment; for he was murdered in the midst of his mighty preparations.

The French, however, were in this reign taught to know their own power; and the great designs of a king, whose wisdom they had so long experienced, even though they were not brought to actual experiment, disposed them to consider themselves as masters of the destiny of their neighbours; and from that time they began to take an air of superiority, to which they had never pretended before; and have been always employed more or less, openly, upon schemes of dominion, tho' with frequent interruptions from domestic troubles.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the customs produced only 36,000*l.* a-year; at the Restoration they were let to farm for 400,000*l.* and produced considerably above double that sum before the Revolution. The people of London, before they had any plantations, and but very little trade, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth they were increased to 150,000, and

are now above six times that number. In those days the English had not only their naval stores, but their ships from the neighbouring nations. The legal interest of money was 12 per cent, and the common price of land ten or twelve years purchase. Their manufactures were few, and those but indifferent; the number of English merchants very small, and the shipping much inferior to what belonged to the American colonies, before the commencement of the present war.

Great Britain is, of all other countries, perhaps the most proper for trade; as well from its situation as an island, as from its natural productions and considerable manufactures. For exportation, England produces many of the most substantial and necessary commodities, as butter, cheese, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pitcoal, alum, saffron, &c. Their horses are the most serviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardiness, beauty, and strength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, and biscuit, they victual not only our own fleets, but many foreigners that come and go. Their iron they export manufactured in great guns, carcases, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almost incredible, is the value likewise of other goods from hence exported; viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, shoes, household-stuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, salmon, oysters, saffron, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is scarce a manufacture in Europe, but what is brought to great perfection in Britain; and therefore it is perfectly unnecessary to enumerate them all. The woollen manufacture is the most considerable in England, and exceeds in goodness and quantity that of any other nation. Hard-ware is another capital article; locks, edgetools, guns, swords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; household utensils of brass, iron, and pewter, also are very great articles; their clocks and watches are in very great esteem. There are but few manufactures they are defective in. In those of lace and paper they do not seem to excel, but import much more than they should if the duty on British paper were taken off. As to foreign traffic, the woollen manufacture is still the great foundation and support of it.

Though the trade from Britain to America hath greatly ceased since the commencement of the present war, it may not be amiss to give the following account of the commodities formerly exported to and from these colonies, especially as in the opinion of many there is a probable view of the American trade being re-commenced in a very short time.

The British possessions in North America may be ranked under the heads of the following colonies, viz. Hudson's Bay, Labrador, Newfoundland, Canada, Nova-Scotia, New-England, (including Massachusetts Bay, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, and New-Hampshire; originally one colony, and though now under separate jurisdictions, are still considered as such;) New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Maryland; North-Carolina, South-Carolina, Georgia, East and West-Florida. The chief commodities exported from Great Britain to those colonies, were wrought iron, steel, copper, pewter, lead, and brass; cordage, hemp, sail-cloth, ship-chandlery, painters colours, millinery, hosiery, haberdashery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, stuffs, flannels, Colchester bays, long ell silks, gold and silver lace, Manchester goods, British, foreign, and Irish linens, earthen wares, grind-stones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares; toys, sadlery, cabi-

net wares, seeds, cheese, strong beer, smoaking pipes, snuffs, wines, spirits, and drugs; East-India goods, books, paper, leather; besides many other articles, according to the different wants and exigencies of the different colonies, impossible to be enumerated here.

The commodities exported from America to Great Britain, and other markets, were tobacco, rice, flour, biscuit, wheat, beans, peas, oats, Indian corn, and other grain; honey, apples, cyder, and onions; salt-beef, pork, hams, bacon, venison, tongues, butter and cheese; prodigious quantities of cod, mackarel, and other fish, and fish-oil; furs and skins of wild beasts; such as bear, beaver, otter, fox, deer, and racoon; horses, and live stock; timber planks, masts, boards, staves, shingles, pitch, tar, and turpentine; ships built for sale; flax, flax-seed, and cotton; indigo, pot-ash, bees-wax, tallow, copper-ore, and iron in bars and in pigs; besides many other commodities peculiar to the climes and soil of different provinces. As to those which have been acquired by the last general peace, they are certainly very improveable, nor can we form any judgment of them, in their present infantine unsettled state. The following is a state of the trade between the colonies and the mother country, as it existed when the differences first took place, marking, at the same time, the commercial strength and shipping of the colonies.

Colonies.	Ships.	Seamen.	Exports from Great Britain.	Exports from the Colonies.
Hudson's Bay	4	130	L. 16,000	L. 29,340
Labrador, American vessels 120	380	20,560	273,400	49,050
Newfoundland, (3000 boats)				345,000
Canada	34	400	105,000	105,500
Nova-Scotia	6	72	26,500	38,000
New-England	46	552	395,000	370,500
Rhode-Island, Connecticut, and New-Hampshire	3	36	12,000	114,500
New-York	30	330	531,000	526,000
Pennsylvania	35	390	611,000	705,500
Virginia and Maryland	330	3,960	865,000	1,040,000
North-Carolina	34	408	18,000	68,350
South-Carolina	140	1,680	365,000	395,666
Georgia	24	240	49,000	74,200
East-Florida	2	24	7,000	
West Florida	10	120	97,000	63,000
	1,078	28,910	3,730,900	3,924,600

The principal islands belonging to Britain, in the West-Indies, are Jamaica, Anguilla, Barbuda, St Christopher's, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat, Dominica, St Vincent, Barbadoes, Tobago, and Granada, and the Grenadines, or Grenadillos; also the Bermudas, or Summer Islands; the Bahama, or Lucayn Islands, in the Atlantic ocean. Of these, Dominica, St Vincent, Tobago, and Granada, were ceded by France to Great-Britain, by the definitive treaty of 1763.

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The British trade with their West-India islands, consists chiefly in sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany, and manchineel planks, drugs and preserves; for these the exports are osnaburghs, a coarse kind of linen, with which the West Indians now clothe their slaves; linen of all sorts, with broad-cloth, and kerseys, for the planters, their overseers and families; silks and stuffs for their ladies and household servants; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and hats; millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and silk; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter and cheese; iron ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chissels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augres, nails; lead, powder, and shot; brass and copper wares; toys, coals, and pan-tiles; cabinet wares, snuffs, and in general whatever is raised or manufactured in Great Britain; also negroes from Africa, and all sorts of India goods. Formerly the British West-India islands sent home large quantities of money in specie, which they got upon the balance of trade with the French, Spaniards, and Portuguese. We cannot, however, speak with any precision, as to the particulars of the trade between the English West Indies and the mother country, though undoubtedly it is highly for the benefit of the latter, because of the cessions made of the new islands there by the late peace, which, when fully peopled, must have a very sensible influence upon the former system of commerce in those parts.

The trade of England to the East-Indies is exclusive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. Besides their settlements on the coast of India, which they enjoy under proper restrictions, by act of parliament, the company have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indostan, acquired such territorial possessions as render them the most formidable commercial republic (for so it may be called in its present situation) that has been known in the world since the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are chosen annually by the proprietors of the stock, but it has been conjectured that they amount annually to above three millions and a half sterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining those acquisitions, are certainly very great; but after these are defrayed, the company not only clears a vast sum, but is able to pay to the government 400,000*l.* yearly, for a certain time; partly by way of indemnification for the expences of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for those possessions that are territorial and not commercial.

This company exports to the East-Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver. Their imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw-silk, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain, or china ware, salt-petre for home consumption; and of wrought silks, muslins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries.

To Turkey England sends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron; hard-ware, iron utensils, clocks, watches, ver-
degris,

degris, spices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw-silks, carpets, skins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and some other articles. Formerly the balance of this trade was about 500,000*l.* annually, in favour of England. The English trade was afterwards diminished through the practices of the French: but the Turkey trade at present is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the English.

England exports to Italy, woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fish, and East India goods; and brings back raw and thrown silk, wines, oil, soap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomgranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury; the balance of this trade in favour of England, is annually about 200,000*l.*

To Spain, England sends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fish, corn, iron, and brass manufactures; haberdashery wares, assortments of linen from Germany, and elsewhere, for her American colonies: and receives, in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indico, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and silver coin.

Portugal, till of late, was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whose fleets and armies have more than once saved her from destruction. Of late her ministry have changed their system, and have fallen in with the views of the house of Bourbon. They have established courts, which are inconsistent with the treaties between Portugal and England, and defraud the English merchants of great parts of their capitals, which they find it impossible to recover. They have likewise erected two Brazil companies; the one for Marenham, and Gran Para, the other for Perambuco, greatly to the detriment of the English rights. Before these misunderstandings happened, the English trade to Portugal was highly beneficial for both nations. England sent to that country almost the same kind of merchandizes as to Spain, and they received in return vast quantities of wines, with oils, salt, dried and moist fruits, dying drugs, and gold coins.

To France, England sends much tobacco, lead, tin, flannels, horns, and sometimes corn; and always much money at the long-run; and brings home, in a smuggling way, a much greater value in wines, brandies, linen, cambrics, lace, velvets, and many other prohibited sopperies, and brocades; always very considerably to England's disadvantage. But as there is no commercial treaty subsisting between England and France, not even in time of peace, England's just loss cannot be ascertained.

England sends to Flanders, serges, flannels, tin, lead, sugars and tobacco; and receives in return, lace, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loses upon the balance 250,000*l.* sterling yearly. To Germany, she sends cloths and stuffs, tin, pewter, sugars, tobacco, and East India merchandize; and brings thence vast quantities of linen, thread, goat-skins, tinned plates, timbers for all uses, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000*l.* annually, to the prejudice of England; but that sum is now greatly reduced, as most

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of the German princes now find it their interest to clothe their armies in English manufactures.

The goods exported from Great Britain to Poland and Lithuania, by the way of Dantzick, greatly exceed those sent from Poland to Great Britain. At Dantzick, all British goods, of whatever denomination, are permitted; the duties upon them are very low; and many articles are sent there, for which there is no longer a demand in other countries. Poland is almost the only country that imports our sugars thoroughly refined to the last stage of that manufacture, which it does in large quantities. The exports from Great Britain of tobacco, manufactured in all its species, is greater to Poland than to any other country. It consumes also large quantities of our woollen goods, hard-ware, malt-liquors, pimento, ginger, pepper, rice, coffee, leather, lead, tin, salt, sea-coal, &c. and would take large quantities of tea, if that trade were free; and large quantities of cod and herring, from Scotland, if that fishery flourished.

To Holland, England sends an immense quantity of many sorts of merchandize; such as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, East-India and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, tar, sugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes returns in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whale-bone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is usually supposed to be much in favour of England.

The acquisitions which the English have made upon the coast of Guinea, particularly their settlement at Senegal, have opened new sources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in possession of Senegal, traded there for gold, slaves, hides, ostrich-feathers, bees-wax, millet, ambergris, and, above all, for that useful commodity, Gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch. At present England sends to the coast of Guinea, sundry sorts of coarse woollen, and linen, iron, pewter, brass and hard-ware manufactures, lead-shot, swords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glass manufactures. And, besides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it supplied her American colonies with negroe slaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-dust, gum, dying and other drugs, red wood, Guinea grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Persia, China, and other parts of Asia, England sends much foreign silver coin and bullion, and sundry English manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and brass; and brings home, from those remote regions, muslins and cottons of many various kinds, callicoes, raw and wrought silk, chinis; teas, porcelain, gold-dust, coffee, saltpetre, and many other drugs. And so great a quantity of those various merchandize are re-exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compensates for all the silver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the East-India, South-Sea, Hudson's-Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who proposes to trade thither must become a member of the company,

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be subject to their laws and regulations, and advance a small sum at admission, for the purposes of supporting consuls, forts, &c.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the exports have been computed at seven millions sterling, and its imports at five, of which above one million is re-exported; so that, if this calculation is true, England gains, annually, three millions sterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the most experienced merchants, and ablest calculators differ. After all that has been said, it must be acknowledged, that many exceptions lie to particular estimates. The vast improvements at home, in iron, silk, linen, and other manufactures, and the growing imports from America, must greatly diminish the English imports from abroad. On the other hand, some of the other European nations are making vigorous efforts for rivaling the English manufactures. With what success they may be attended, time alone can determine; but hitherto the appearances on their side are not very promising.

Yet the foreign trade does not amount to one-sixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural productions and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and silver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa; but great part of this gold and silver is again exported to Holland, and the East-Indies; and it is supposed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffick of England is carried on in the port of London.

We shall conclude this account of British trade, with the following comparative view of shipping, which, till a better table can be formed, may have its uses.

If the shipping of Europe be divided into twenty parts, then,

Great Britain, &c. is computed to have	6
The United Provinces	6
Denmark, Sweden, and Russia	2
The trading cities of Germany, and the Austrian Netherlands	1
France	2
Spain and Portugal	2
Italy, and the rest of Europe	1

Cornwall and Devonshire supply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almost all the Western counties. Dorsetshire manufactures cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of sheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somersetshire, besides furnishing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, stockings, and caps. Bristol, which is both a city and county, is said by some to employ 2000 maritime vessels of all sizes, coasters, as well as ships employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glass-bottle and drinking-glass one alone occupying fifteen large houses: its brass-wire manufactures are also very considerable. Vast manufactures of all kinds (glass, jewelry, clocks, watches, and cussery, in particular) are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and silver manufactures of London, through the encouragement given them

by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, those of any country in Europe. Colchester is famous for its manufactures of bays and serges; and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camblets, druggets, and stockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largest and most populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade, in excellent ingenious hard-ware manufactures, particularly snuff and tobacco-boxes, buttons, shoe-buckles, etwees, and many other sorts of steel and brass-ware: it is in London, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of English art and industry is to be seen; for such are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard-ware, that they can afford them for the fourth part of the price at which other nations can furnish the same or an inferior kind: the cheapness of coals, and all necessaries, and the conveniency of situation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this.

The Northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarser and slighter woollen manufactures; witness those of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond, and, above all, Manchester; which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like stuffs, is become a large and populous place, though it is only a village, and its highest magistrate a constable. Coventry, Nottingham, Leicester, Derby, Kendal, and many other manufacturing towns and places of England, are each of them noted for some particular commodity: a beautiful kind of porcelaine and earthen ware has of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worcestershire and Staffordshire. The English carpets, particularly those of Wilton and Kidderminster, though but a late manufacture, greatly exceed in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable; the manufacture, consequently, is a vast saving to the nation. Paper, which, till very lately, was imported in vast quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom, and is a most necessary as well as beneficial manufacture. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of salt-petre, which was first attempted in England by Sir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the East-India company: the success of such an undertaking would be of immense benefit, as well as security to the nation; but those who understand chemistry are of opinion, that a manufacture of this kind can never be carried on with any prospect of success in Britain.

A short view of the Stocks, or public funds in England, with an historical account of the East-India, the Bank, and South-Sea companies.

IN order to give a clear idea of the money-transactions of the several companies, it is proper we should say something of money in general, and particularly of paper-money, and the difference between that and the current specie. Money is the standard of the value of all the necessaries and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the representative of that standard, to such a degree, as to supply its place, and to answer all the purposes of gold and silver coin. Nothing is necessary to make this representative of money supply the

place

place of specie, but the credit of that office or company who delivers it; which credit consists in its always being ready to turn it into specie whenever required. This is exactly the case of the bank of England; the notes of this company are of the same value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the possessor pleases. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is punished with death, as well as coining.

The method of depositing money in the bank, and exchanging it for notes, (tho' they bear no interest,) is attended with many conveniences; as they are not only safer than money in the hands of the owner himself; but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more easy conveyance; since a bank note, for a very large sum, may be sent by the post; and, to prevent the designs of robbers, may, without damage, be cut in two, and sent at two several times. Or bills, called bank post-bills, may be had by application at the bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent losses by robberies, they being made payable to the order of the person who takes them out, at a certain number of days after sight; which gives an opportunity to stop bills at the bank, if they should be lost, and prevents their being so easily negotiated by strangers as common bank notes are: and whosoever considers the hazard, the expence and trouble, there would be in sending large sums of gold and silver to and from distant places, must also consider this as a very singular advantage. Besides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are destroyed by time, or other accident, the bank will, on oath being made of such accident, and security being given, pay the money to the person who was in possession of them.

Bank notes differ from all kinds of stock in these three particulars; 1. They are always of the same value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. they bear no interest; while stocks are a share in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. India bonds indeed, (by some persons, tho' erroneously, denominated stock,) are to be excepted, they being made payable at six months notice, either on the side of the company or of the possessor.

By the word Stock was originally meant a particular sum of money contributed to the establishing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the person became a partner in that trade, and received a share in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money employed. But this term has been extended farther, tho' improperly, to signify any sum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain interest till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the security both of the government and of the public companies is esteemed preferable to that of any private person, as the stocks are negotiable and may be sold at any time, and as the interest is always punctually paid when due, so they are thereby enabled to borrow money on a lower interest than what might be obtained from lending it to private persons, where there is often some danger of losing both principal and interest.

But as every capital stock or fund of a company is raised for a particular purpose, and limited by parliament to a certain sum, it ne-

cessarily follows, that when that fund is compleated, no stock can be bought of the company; tho' shares already purchased may be transferred from one person to another. This being the case, there is frequently a great disproportion between the original value of the shares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than sellers, a person who is indifferent about selling, will not part with his share without a considerable profit to himself; and, on the contrary, if many are disposed to sell, and few inclined to buy, the value of such shares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of those who want to turn their stock into specie.

These observations may serve to give our readers some idea of the nature of that unjustifiable and dishonest practice called stock-jobbing, the mystery of which consists in nothing more than this: the persons concerned in that practice, who are denominated stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or sell, at a certain distant time, a certain quantity of some particular stock, against which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raise or lower such stock, by raising rumours and spreading fictitious stories, in order to induce people either to sell out in a hurry, and consequently cheap, if they are to deliver stock; or to become unwilling to sell, and consequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive stock.

The persons who make these contracts are not in general possessed of any real stock, and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price the stock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for persons not worth 100*l.* to make contracts for the buying or selling 100,000*l.* stock. In the language of Exchange-Ally, the buyer in this case is called the Bull, and the seller the Bear.

Besides these, there are another set of men, who, tho' of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the same denomination: These are the great monied men, who are dealers in stock, and contractors with the government whenever any new money is to be borrowed. These indeed are not fictitious, but real buyers and sellers of stock; but by raising false hopes, or creating groundless fears, by pretending to buy or sell large quantities of stock on a sudden, by using the forementioned set of men as their instruments, and other like practices, are enabled to raise or fall the stocks one or two per cent. at pleasure.

However, the real value of one stock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government, by which that credit is secured, must naturally have a considerable effect on the stocks. Thus, with respect to the interest of the proprietors, a share in the stock of a trading company, which produces 5*l.* or 6*l.* per cent. per annum, must be more valuable than an annuity with government security, that produces no more than 3*l.* or 4*l.* per cent. per annum; and consequently such stock must sell at a higher price than such an annuity. Tho' it must be observed, that a share in the stock of a trading company producing 5*l.* or 6*l.* per cent. per annum, will not fetch so much money at market as a government annuity producing the same sum, because the security

curity of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying so much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the stocks of the East-India, the Bank, and South-Sea companies, are distinguished by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we shall give a short history of each of them, together with an account of the different stocks each is possessed of, beginning with the East-India company, as the first established.

Public trading Companies.] Of these the East-India company takes the lead. The first idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has since admitted of vast alterations. Its shares, or subscriptions, were originally only 50*l.* ster. and its capital only 369,891*l.* 5*s.* but the directors having a considerable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the shares were doubled, and, consequently, each became 100*l.* value, and the capital 739,782*l.* 10*s.* to which capital, if 963,639*l.* the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole stock will be found to be 1,703,402*l.* Though the establishment of this company was vindicated in the clearest manner by Sir Josiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the losses it sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indostan, damped the ardour of the public to support it; so that at the time of the revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent situation. This was in a great measure owing to its having no parliamentary sanction, whereby its stock often sold for one half less than it was really worth; and it was resolved that a new company should be erected, under the authority of parliament.

The opposition given to all the public spirited measures of king William by faction, rendered this proposal a matter of vast difficulty; but at last, after many parliamentary inquiries, the new subscription prevailed; and the subscribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at eight per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vast interest both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in some respects defective, such a violent struggle between the two companies arose, that in the year 1702 they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708, the yearly fund of eight per cent. for two millions was reduced to five per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000*l.* to the public, without any additional interest; for which consideration the company obtained a prolongation of its exclusive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of The United Company of Merchants trading to the East-Indies. Its exclusive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther sum was lent by the company in 1730, by which, tho' the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the interest of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000*l.* was reduced to three per cent. and called the India three per cent. annuities.

Those annuities are different from the trading stock of the company,

pany, the proprietors of which, instead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different shares, a dividend of the profits arising from the company's trade; and that dividend rises or falls according to the circumstances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the case, pretended. A proprietor of stock to the amount of 500*l.* whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thousand pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman and deputy chairman, who may be re-elected for four years successively. The chairman has a salary of 200*l.* a year, and each of the directors 150*l.* The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at least once a week; but are commonly oftener, being summoned as occasion requires. Out of the body of directors are chosen several committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the company's business; as the committee of correspondence, a committee of buying, a committee of treasury, a house-committee, a committee of warehouses, a committee of shipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of law-suits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a secretary, cashier, clerks, and warehouse-keepers. Other officers of the company are governors and factors abroad, some of whom have guards of soldiers, and live in all the state of sovereign princes.

The amazing territorial acquisitions of this company, which are attended with a proportionable increase of trade, joined to the dissensions among its managers both at home and abroad, have of late engaged the attention of the legislature so much, that a restriction has been laid on their dividends for a certain time. In 1773, an act was passed, entitled, "an act for establishing certain rules and orders for the future management of the affairs of the East-India company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors should in future be elected for four years, six members annually, but none to hold their seats longer than four years. That no person should vote at the election of the directors, who had not possessed their stock twelve months. That the stock of qualification, instead of 500*l.* as it had formerly been, should now be 1000*l.* That the mayor's court of Calcutta should for the future be confined to small mercantile causes, to which only its jurisdiction could extend before the territorial acquisition. That instead of this court a new one should be established, consisting of a chief justice and three puisne judges; and that these judges should be appointed by the crown. That a superiority should be given to the presidency of Bengal over the other presidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal should be vested in the crown: the salaries of the judges were also fixed; 8000*l.* to the chief justice and 6000*l.* a-year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed; the first at 5000*l.* and the four others at 10,000*l.* annually. This was certainly a very extraordinary act, and an immense power and influence were thereby added to the crown. From the report of the committee in 1773, appointed by parliament on India affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to 1756, for the space of forty-seven years and

and a half, divided the sum of 12,000,000*l.* or above 280,000*l.* per annum, which on a capital of 3,190,000*l.* amounted to above eight and a half per cent. and that at the last mentioned period it appeared, that besides the above dividend, the capital stock of the company had been increased 180,000*l.*

Bank of England.] The company of the bank was incorporated by parliament in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England; in consideration of the loan of 1,200,000*l.* granted to the government; for which the subscribers received almost eight per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common seal, unless by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or suffer any person in trust for them, to trade in any goods, or merchandize; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and foreign gold and silver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament passed in the 8th and 9th year of William III. they were impowered to enlarge their capital stock to 2,201,171*l.* 10*s.* It was then also enacted, that bank stock should be a personal, and not a real estate; that no contract either in word or writing, for buying or selling bank stock, should be good in law, unless registered in the books of the bank within seven days; and the stock transferred in fourteen days; and that it should be felony, without benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common seal of the bank, or any sealed bank bill, or any bank note, or to alter or erase such bills or notes. By another act passed in the 7th of Queen Anne, the company were impowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343*l.* and they then advanced 400,000*l.* more to the government; and in 1714, they advanced another loan of 1,500,000*l.* In the third year of the reign of king George I. the interest of their capital stock was reduced to five per cent. when the bank agreed to deliver up as many exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000*l.* and to accept an annuity of 100,000*l.* and it was declared lawful for the bank to call from their members, in proportion to their interests in the capital stock, such sums of money as in a general court should be found necessary. If any member should neglect to pay his share of the monies so called for, at the time appointed by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it should be lawful for the bank, not only to stop the dividend of such member, and to apply it towards payment of the money in question; but also to stop the transfers of the share of such defaulter, and to charge him with an interest of five per cent per annum, for the money so omitted to be paid: and if the principal and interest should be three months unpaid, the bank should then have power to sell so much of the stock belonging to the defaulter as would satisfy the same.

After this, the bank reduced the interest of the 2,000,000*l.* lent to the government, from five to four per cent. and purchased several other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt due to the bank reduced to 1,600,000*l.* But in 1742, the company engaged to supply the government with 1,600,000*l.* at three per cent. which is now called the three per cent. annuities; so that the government was now indebted to the company

pany 3,200,000*l.* the one half carrying four, and the other three per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the sum of 986,800*l.* due to them in the exchequer bills unsatisfied, on the duties for licences to sell spiritous liquors by retail, should be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,442*l.* the interest of that sum at four per cent. The company also agreed to advance the further sum of 1,000,000*l.* into the exchequer, upon the credit of the duties arising by the malt and land-tax, at four per cent. for exchequer bills to be issued for that purpose; in consideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800*l.* the interest of which as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December 1757, and from that time to carry only three per cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the said Exchequer bills, they established what is now called Bank circulation. The company of the bank are obliged to keep cash sufficient to answer not only the common, but also any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them, over and above the sum supposed necessary for these purposes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to say, in discounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and silver, and in government securities, &c. But when the bank entered into the abovementioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger sum of money than what they deemed necessary to answer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current cash so large a sum as a million, with which they were obliged to furnish the government, without either lessening that sum they employed in discounting, buying gold and silver, &c. (which would have been very disadvantageous to them) or inventing some method that should answer all the purposes of keeping the million in cash. The method which they chose, and which fully answers their end, was as follows:

They opened a subscription, which they renew annually, for a million of money; wherein the subscribers advance ten per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the bank shall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the ten per cent. so advanced; in consideration of which, the bank pays the subscribers four per cent. interest for the money paid in, and one-fourth per cent. for the whole sum they agree to furnish; and in case a call should be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the bank further agrees to pay them at the rate of five per cent. per annum for such sum till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the bank obtains all the purposes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the subscribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the case) receive six and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the sum of 23,500*l.* per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account:

The bank receives from the government for the advance

of a million £. 30,000.

The

The bank pays to the subscribers who advance 100,000l.	}	Brought over £. 30,000
and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000l. more,		6,500
The clear gain to the bank therefore is		23,500

This is the state of the case, provided the company should make no call on the subscribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, because it would not only lessen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank stock may not improperly be called a trading stock, since with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and silver, in discounting bills of exchange *, &c. Besides which, they are allowed by the government very considerable sums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages, render a share in their stock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the East-India stock. The company make dividends of the profits half yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when those who have occasion for their money may readily receive it; but private persons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their interest added to the principal †.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the same manner as in the East-India company. Thirteen, or more, compose a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

The officers of this company are very numerous.

South-Sea Company.] During the long war with France in the reign of Queen Anne, the payment of the sailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets instead of money, were frequently obliged, by their necessities, to sell these tickets to avaricious men at a discount of 40l. and sometimes 50l. per cent. By this, and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of these usurers. On which Mr Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards Earl of Oxford, proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies six per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain, trading to the South-seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the fishery, &c.

Though this company seemed formed for the sake of commerce, it is certain the ministry never thought seriously, during the course of the war, about making any settlements on the coast of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken

* At four per cent. until the year 1773, when it was advanced to five.

† The Bank Company is supposed to have now twelve millions of circulating paper. See a letter on private and public credit in the *Gentleman's Magazine*, November 1772.

taken by this company, except the Assiento, in pursuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furnishing the Spaniards with negroes; of which this company was deprived upon receiving 100,000*l.* in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, soon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other sums were lent to the government in the reign of Queen Anne, at six per cent. In the third of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to five per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the same interest. By the statute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the sums they should discharge: and for enabling the company to raise such sums for purchasing annuities, exchanging for ready money new exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. the company might, by such means as they should think proper, raise such sums of money as in a general court of the company should be judged necessary. The company were also empowered to raise money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under the common seal, on the credit of their capital stock. But if the sub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, should purchase land or revenues of the crown, upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation, on any branch of the revenue, other than such part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, such sub-governor, or other member of the company, should forfeit treble the value of the money so lent.

The fatal South-Sea scheme, transacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the last-mentioned statute. The company had at first set out with good success, and the value of their stock, for the first five years, had risen faster than that of any other company, and his majesty, after purchasing 10,000*l.* stock, had condescended to be their governor. Things were in this situation, when taking advantage of the above statute, the South-sea bubble was projected. The pretended design of which was to raise a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-sea, and purchasing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and proposals were printed and distributed, shewing the advantages of the design, and inviting persons into it. The sum necessary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into a certain number of shares, or subscriptions, to be purchased by persons disposed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared that every 100*l.* original stock would yield 50*l.* per annum: which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of 100*l.* was sold for upwards of 800*l.* This was in the month of July; but before the end of September, it fell to 150*l.* by which multitudes were ruined, and such a scene of distress occasioned, as is scarcely to be conceived. But the consequences of this infamous scheme are too well known. We shall pass over all the other transactions of this company, in the reign of king George I. as not material to our present purpose.

By

By a statute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June 1733, the capital stock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,103*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.* and the shares of the respective proprietors, should be divided into four equal parts, three-fourths of which should be converted into a joint stock, attended with annuities, after the rate of four per cent. until redemption by parliament, and should be called the new South-Sea annuities; and the other fourth part should remain in the company as a trading capital stock, attended with the residue of the annuities or funds payable at the exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the same sums allowed for the charge of management, and with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South-Sea company. That the accountant of the company should, twice every year, at Christmas and Midsummer, or within one month after, state an account of the company's affairs, which should be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends should be made out of the clear profits, and should not exceed what the company might reasonably divide, without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company should not at any time divide more than four per cent. per annum, until their debts were discharged; and that the South-Sea company, and their trading stock, should, exclusively from the new joint stock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company should cause to be kept, within the city of London, an office, and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities should be entered, and signed by the party making such transfer, or his attorney; and the person to whom such transfer should be made, or his attorney, should underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities should be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3*l.* per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, sub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no person is qualified to be governor, his majesty excepted, unless such governor has in his own name and right, 5000*l.* in the trading stock; the sub-governor is to have 4000*l.* the deputy-governor 3000*l.* and a director 2000*l.* in the same stock. In every general court, every member, having in his own name and right, 500*l.* in trading stock, has one vote; if 2000*l.* two votes; if 3000*l.* three votes, and if 5000*l.* four votes.

The East-India company, the bank of England, and the South-Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the Million-Bank, whose capital is only one million, constituted to purchase the reversion of the long exchequer orders.

The interest of all the debts owing by the government is now reduced to three per cent. The annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, the exchequer orders, and the bank four per cent. conf. which till this year (1781) were four per cent. are now also reduced to three: but the South-Sea company still continues to divide four per cent. on their present capital stock; which they are enabled to do

from the profits they make on the sums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the interest of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different stocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*, so when a person who is not acquainted with transactions of that nature reads in the papers the prices of stocks, where Bank stock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 a 134½, South-Sea ditto 97½, &c. he is to understand, that 100l. of those respective stocks sell at such a time for those several sums.

In comparing the prices of the different stocks one with another, it must be remembered, that the interest due on them from the time of the last payment, is taken into the current price, and the seller never receives any separate consideration for it, except in the case of India bonds, where the interest due is calculated to the day of sale, and paid by the purchaser over and above the premium agreed for. But as the interest on the different stocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly understood, would lead a person, not well acquainted with them, into considerable mistakes in his computation of their value; some always having a quarter's interest due on them more than others, which makes an appearance of a considerable difference in the price, when, in reality, there is none at all. Thus, for instance, old South-Sea annuities sell at present for £.85½, or 85l. 10s. while new South-Sea annuities fetch only £.84½, or 84l. 15s. though each of them produce the same annual sum of three per cent. but the old annuities have a quarter's interest more due on them than the new annuities, which amounts to 15s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two causes which will always make one species of annuities sell somewhat lower than another, though of the same real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a small capital, and there not being, for that reason, so many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others, where the quantity is larger; because it is apprehended, that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular species of annuity, the capital of which is the smallest.

A stock may likewise be affected by the court of Chancery; for if that court should order the money which is under their direction, to be laid out in any particular stock, that stock, by having more purchasers, will be raised to a higher price than any other of the like value.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] The exemption of the English constitution from the despotic powers exercised in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reason why it is very difficult to ascertain the number of inhabitants in England. With regard to political calculations, they must be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners, who settle in the nation; the former evacuations of inhabitants to America, their return from thence, the vast numbers of hands employed in shipping, and the demand of men for the East-Indies, and other foreign countries, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. It is certain, however, that this part of the island is very populous. The late war, which broke out with France and Spain,

Spain, annually employed above 200,000 Englishmen, exclusive of Scots and Irish, by sea and land, and in its progress carried off, by various means, very near that number.

Englishmen, in their persons, are generally well-sized, regularly featured, commonly fair, rather than otherwise, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be presumed, that the vast numbers of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a cast to their persons and complexions, different from those of their ancestors, 150 years ago. The women, in general are very beautiful; and it has been observed, that those of Lancashire and some other counties, display a manifest superiority in this respect.

Of all people in the world the English keep themselves the most cleanly. Their nerves are so delicate, that people of both sexes are easily affected by imagination, insomuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the small-pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathsome disease, by its true name, in any polite company. This over sensibility is one of the sources of those oddities, which so strongly characterise the English nation. An apprehension of dying a beggar, often kills them in the midst of plenty and prosperity. They magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution, or constancy of mind. A groundless paragraph in a news-paper, has been known to affect the stocks, and consequently public credit, to a considerable degree, and their credulity goes so far, that England may be termed the paradise of quacks and empirics, in all arts and professions. In short, the English feel, as if it really existed, every evil in mind, body, and estate, which they form in their imagination. At particular intervals, they are sensible of this absurdity, and run into a contrary extreme, striving to banish it by dissipation, riot, intemperance, and diversions. They are fond, for the same reason, of clubs, and convivial associations, and when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cures for those mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national. It hath been observed by an eminent physician, that self-murder often happens among the English when it cannot be thought to proceed from any kind of madness or other disease.

The same observations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which must be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change since the accession of the house of Hanover, especially of late years. The English nobility and gentry, of great fortunes, now assimilate their manners to those of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourse than their forefathers had. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they visit, under the tuition, perhaps, of a despicable pedant, or family dependant. They travel for the purposes of society, and at the most advanced ages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their passions regulated. This has enlarged society in England, which foreigners now visit as commonly as Englishmen visited them, and the effects of the intercourse become daily more visible,

and more visible, especially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex.

Notwithstanding those noble provisions which would banish poverty from any other country, the streets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of distress, who beg in defiance of the laws, which render the practice severely punishable. This is owing to the manner in which the common people live, who consider the food to be uneatable, which in other countries would be thought luxurious.

The English, though irascible, are easily prevailed upon to forgive by submission, and they carry this lenity too far, by accepting of professions of sorrow published in advertisements by those who offend them, and who seldom are sincere; nay, often laugh at the easiness of their prosecutors, for dismissing them so gently. The unsuspecting nature of the English, and their honest open manners, especially of those in the mercantile way, render them dupes in several respects. They attend to projectors, and no scheme is so ridiculous that will not find abettors in England. The lowest bred of the English are capable of generous actions, but they often make an ostentatious display of their own merits, which diminishes their value; but there is among the English, of all ranks, a most unpardonable preference given to wealth, over all other considerations. Riches, both in public and private, compensate for the absence of every good quality. The same attention to property operates in many other shapes among the lower classes, who think it gives them a right to be rude and disregarding of all about them; nor are the higher orders exempt from the same failing. The same principle often influences their exterior appearances. Noblemen of the first rank have been often seen laying bets with butchers and cobblers at horse-races and boxing matches. Gentlemen and merchants of vast property are not to be distinguished either by their dress or conversation from the meanest of their servants, and a wager offered to be staked in ready money against a pennyless antagonist, is generally a decisive argument in public company.

Living, learning, and genius, meets with very little regard, even from the first rate of Englishmen: and it is not unusual for them to throw aside the best productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the state distinction of Whig and Tory subsisted, the heads of each party affected to patronize men of literary abilities, but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate, and the very few who met with preferment in the state, might have earned them by a competent knowledge of business, and that servility which the dependents in office generally possess. We scarce have an instance even in the munificent reign of Queen Anne, or of her predecessors, who owed so much to the press, of a man of genius being, as such, made easy in his circumstances. Mr Addison had about 300*l.* a year of the public money to assist him in his travels; and Mr Pope, though a Roman-catholic, was offered, but did not accept of the like pension from Mr Craggs, the Whig secretary of state, when it was remarked that his Tory friend and companion, the earl of Oxford, when sole minister, did nothing for him but bewail his misfortune in being a Papist. This reproach up-

on the munificence of government is now wearing off under the patronage of his majesty and his ministers.

It must be owned, however, that every day produced strong indications of great alterations in the English manners. The vast fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immense acquisitions of territory by peace, and, above all, the amazing increase of territorial as well as commercial property in the East-Indies, have introduced a species of people among the English, who have become rich without industry, and by diminishing the value of gold and silver have created a new system of finances in the nation. Time alone can shew the event: hitherto the consequences seem to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a spirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the most fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal, or surpass the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of business, which prevailed as lately as the accession of the present family to the crown, are now disregarded for tasteless extravagance in dress and equipage, and the most expensive amusements and diversions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even the customs of the English have, since the beginning of this century, undergone an almost total alteration. Their ancient hospitality subsists but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occasions. Many of their favourite diversions are now disused. Those remaining are operas, dramatic exhibitions, *ridottos*, and sometimes masquerades in or near London; but concerts of music, and card and dancing assemblies are common all over the kingdom. The English of all denominations are fond, even to insatiation, of stag and fox-hunting, and horse-races. Somewhat however may be offered by way of apology for those diversions: the intense application which the English give to business, their sedentary lives, and luxurious diet require exercise, and some think, that their excellent breed of horses is increased and improved by those amusements. Next to horse-racing, and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diversion, among the great, as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both assemble round the pit, at one of these matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of the generous animal, every spectator being concerned in a bet, sometimes of high sums. The athletic diversion of cricket is still kept up in the Southern and Western parts of England, and is sometimes practised by people of the highest rank. It is performed by a person, who, with a clumsy wooden bat, defends a wicket raised of two slender sticks, with one a-cross, which is attacked by another person, who endeavours to beat it down with a hard leather ball, from a certain stand. The farther the distance is to which the ball is driven, the oftner the defender is able to run between the wicket and the stand. This is called gaining so many notches, and he who gets the most is the victor. Many other pastimes are common in England, some of them of a very robust nature, such as cudgelling, wrestling, bowls, skittles, quoits, and prison-base; not to mention duck-hunting, foot, and ass-races, dancing puppet-shews, May-garlands; and, above all, ringing of bells, a species of music which the English boast they have brought

brought into an art. The barbarous diversions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England, and equally inhumane, as the shows of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, and all places of public diversions, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diversions, which are common to other countries, such as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, swimming, angling, fowling, coursing, and the like, are familiar to the English. Two kinds, and those highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them, and these are rowing and sailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged, by his present majesty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The English are excessively fond of skating, in which, however they are not very expert, but they are adventurous in it often to the danger and loss of their lives. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, tho' without answering the purposes of the rich, foil the farmers, and the country people, destroy the game in their nets, which they dare not kill with the gun.

Dress.] In the dress of both sexes, before the reign of George III. they followed the French; but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majesty. The English, at present, bid fair to be the dictators of dress to the French themselves, at least with regard to elegance, neatness, and richness of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both sexes, appear on high occasions, in cloth of gold and silver, the richest brocades, sattins, silks, and velvets, both flowered and plain, and it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all those are discouraged. Some of those rich stuffs are said to be brought to as great perfection in England as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occasions are incredible, especially since the vast acquisitions of the English in the East-Indies. The same nobility, and persons of distinction, on ordinary occasions, dress like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the finest cloth, and the best of linen. The full dress of a clergyman consists in his gown, cassock, scarf, beaver-hat and rose, all of black: his undress is a dark grey frock, and plain linen. The physicians, the formality of whose dress, in large tie perukes, and swords, was formerly remarkable, if not ridiculous, begin now to dress like other gentlemen, and men of business, that is, to wear a plain suit of superfine cloth, excellent linen, and wigs that suit their complexions and the form of their faces. Few Englishmen, tradesmen, merchants, and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without some passion for the sports of the field, on which occasions they dress with remarkable propriety, in a light frock, narrow brimmed hat, a short bob wig, jockey boots, and buckskin or shag breeches. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; but since the accession of his present majesty, the dresses at court, on solemn occasions, are superb beyond description. Few, even of the lowest tradesmen, on Sundays, carry about them less than 10 l. in clothing, comprehending hat, wig, stockings, shoes and linen, and even many beggars in the street appear decent in their dress. In short,

none but the most abandoned of both sexes are otherwise; and the appearance of a man in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his industry and morals.

Constitution.] Every British gentleman is sensible, that he lives in a country, where life, liberty, and property, are better secured than in any kingdom in Europe. The legislative authority (or the power of making laws and raising money) is vested in king, lords, and commons, and each of them has a negative when these matters are proposed. The crown is made hereditary in the Hanover line by several acts of parliament, provided they do not profess Popery, marry Papists, or subvert the constitution. The peers are created by the crown, but their honours are hereditary, and cannot be taken from them any more than their lives and estates, unless forfeited by the commission of high treason; and they can be tried only by the whole house of peers, being subject to no other jurisdiction. The house of peers is the last resort in all civil causes, unless where the privileges of the commons are affected; and they can try any commoner on an impeachment of the commons; but no suit or prosecution can be begun against a commoner in the house of lords, though they may be possessed of a cause, and determine it finally in case of appeal. Any bill for the making a new law, or altering an old law, may be brought in first in the house of peers, except a money-bill; but no bill relating to the revenues or public taxes can be brought into the house of peers first, or altered when it comes up from the commons, though it may be totally rejected by the lords.

The house of peers can apprehend and commit any man for a breach of privilege, or reflections on their judicature (except a member of the commons) and such a commitment is of itself a sufficient punishment frequently, being vastly chargeable; but such persons are released of course on the rising of the parliament. Every lord, in his private capacity, may bring his action of *scandalum magnatum* against any subject, in the court of King's-bench, and may recover such damages for defamation as a jury shall think proper.

The commons are said to represent the people, though they do not in reality represent a fourth part of them; for only the freeholders vote for a knight of the shire, and these scarce amount to a sixth of the inhabitants of any county; and in some cities and boroughs there is as great, or a much greater disproportion, particularly in London, where there are 300,000 people and upwards, and none but the liverymen, who amount to about 7000, have a vote in elections. Many great towns have no vote at all in the elections. If there was any stress therefore to be laid on that maxim, That all just and legal power is derived from the people (from the multitude) then there has been very few just or legal governments in this or any other nation.

The ladies also may think it a hardship, that they are neither allowed a place in the senate, or a voice in the choice of what is called the representative of the nation. The French exclude them from the crown, and, though England never flourished more than under Queens, they are not thought qualified to give their votes for a representative. However, their influence appears to be such, in many

instances, that they have little reason to complain. In boroughs, the candidates are so wise as to apply chiefly to the wife. A certain candidate for a Norfolk borough kissed the voters wives with guineas in his mouth, for which he was expelled the house; and for this reason others, it is hoped, will be more private in their addresses to the ladies.

A foreigner, speaking of the British constitution, says, It seems dictated by wisdom itself; but read their history, and you will be convinced (says he) that this government, so boasted of, is, like Plato's republic, but an ideal project, not reducible to practice. One of the branches of the legislature constantly influences the other two; and if the crown can make it appear to be the private interest of every individual, that composes the other branches, to obey its dictates, the British court may be as absolute as any court of Europe. And, if the crown should assume an absolute dominion, how can this be remedied? For the executive power (the power of putting the laws in execution) and the command of the forces by sea and land, as well as the making alliances and treaties with foreign princes, are vested solely in the crown by law; and whoever shall enter into a conspiracy to oppose or resist this executive power, will infallibly be adjudged a traitor. We have, indeed, a privilege, that few other nations enjoy, of being tried by juries of our neighbours; but very much lies in the power of sheriffs to pact such juries as their superiors direct.

The subject may also have his writ of Habeas Corpus, when he is imprisoned, to be brought to trial or discharged; but this act is always suspended on the rumour of a plot against the government; and persons, committed by the commons, have been denied the benefit of the Habeas Corpus act.

And, whatever the privileges of the rest of the subjects may be, the gentlemen of the royal navy or army have very little pretensions to them; they are subject to the sentence of a court-martial, and may, in many cases, be punished without being brought before that judicature. These are obliged to obey their superior officers without reserve, and those officers must obey ministers from whom they receive their commissions. The moment therefore a gentleman enters into the service, he waves all the rights and privileges he might be intitled to as an Englishman, or rather barthers them away for a laced coat and a feather.

The King's title.] George III. by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, Duke of Brunswick and Lunenburg, Arch-Treasurer, and Elector of the Holy Roman Empire.

Arms.] In the first grand quarter, Mars, three lions passant guardant in pale, Sol; the imperial ensigns of England, impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, which are Sol, a lion rampant, within a double tressure flowered and counterflowered with Fleurs-de-Lis, Mars. The second quarter is the royal arms of France, Jupiter, three Fleurs-de-Lis, Sol. The third the ensign of Ireland, which is Jupiter, an harp, Sol, stringed Luna. The fourth grand quarter

ter is his present majesty's own coat, Mars, two lions passant guardant, Sol, for Brunswick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is Sol, semee of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter, having ancient Saxony, *viz.* Mars, an horse current, Luna, grafted in base; and, in a shield furtout, Mars, the diadem or crown of Charlemaigne. The whole within a garter, as sovereign of that most noble order of knighthood, inscribed with this motto, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, given by king Edward III. the founder of the said order.

Crest.] A helmet full-faced and grated, mantled with cloth of gold, doubled ermin, and surmounted on an imperial crown, on the top of which is a lion passant guardant, Sol, crowned the same.

Supporters.] On the dexter side, a lion guardant, Sol, crowned as the crest, the proper supporter of the English ensign; on the sinister an unicorn, Luna, horned, maned, and hoofed, Sol, gorged with a collar of crosses pattee and Fleurs-de-Lis, a chain fixed thereto, all gold, both standing on a compartment, from whence issue from one stem the two royal badges of his majesty's chief dominions, *viz.* on the right, a rose, party per pale argent and gules, stalked and leaved vert, for England: and, on the left, a thistle, proper, for Scotland; being so adorned by King James I. whose supporters (as King of Scotland) were two unicorns; but, under him, England, being united to that nation, gave occasion for our carrying one of them on the sinister side; and, in the year 1614, as King of Ireland, he also caused the harp to be marshalled with the arms of Great Britain, since which time it hath been put on the British coin.

Forces.] The land forces of these kingdoms, in time of peace, are about 40,000, all national troops, *viz.* 18,000 in Great Britain, 12,000 in Ireland, 8000 in the garrison of Gibraltar, &c. and about 2000 at Annapolis, in Nova-Scotia, New-York, and Jamaica.

In time of war there have been in British pay, natives and foreigners, upwards of 150,000.

The compliment of seamen, in time of peace, is usually 12, or 15,000. In time of war, money has been raised for 60,000 seamen.

There are men of war of the line of battle (from 100 down to 50 guns) 150 sail; of fifth rates, under 50, and above 20, 36 sail; of sixth rates, of 20 guns each, 70 sail; sloops of war, of 16 guns and 100 men each, 54 sail. Total of the royal navy, 310 ships of war, besides bomb-vessels, fire-ships, and royal yachts.

Revenues.] The King's revenue for the civil list was 800,000*l.* per annum, but by a late act of parliament it was increased to 900,000*l.*

The other charges of the government, for the payment of the forces by sea and land, and discharging the interest of the national debt, amount to above six millions more; and in time of war there have been raised or borrowed upwards of 20 millions within the space of a year.

The several species of taxes are,

1. The land-tax, often at 4*s.* in the pound.
2. The malt-tax.
3. The

3. The customs. 4. The excise. 5. The stamp-duties. 6. Window-tax. 7. Coaches and chairs. 8. Hawkers and pedlars.

Religion.] The national religion, as established by law, is Christianity conformable to the doctrine delivered in the New Testament; and freed from the erroneous appendages of the church of Rome. The government in religion is supposed under the convocation, or national synod of the clergy; who are called together by the King's writs at the same time as the parliament is; each diocese sends two, and each cathedral one, besides the bishops, deans, &c. The convocation does meet indeed, but are directly dissolved by the king; because it is not apparent that they have any real business to do, the ecclesiastical affairs being done in the courts of the archbishops, bishops, and some others.

In England, mankind are at liberty to serve the Supreme Being in that manner most agreeable to their ideas; provided their manner does not disturb the national worship, or interfere with the laws. This toleration has been productive of many sects, distinguished by their forms of worship, by their creeds, or by their notions of some points of belief, discussed only by enthusiasts, or by such as expect some benefit from new singularities. The absurdity which prevailed some years ago of attempting to ridicule religion and the clergy, by those who called themselves free-thinkers, is, in general, sufficiently exploded; and those who still continue to think freely commonly have a sufficient share of good manners not to disturb religious persons with their thoughts about that which they cannot amend.

Archbishopricks and Bishopricks.] There are in England two provinces, viz. Canterbury and York, each of which has its Archbishop.

In the province of Canterbury are the bishopricks of, 1. London, 2. Winchester, 3. Ely, 4. Lincoln, 5. Rochester, 6. Litchfield and Coventry, 7. Hereford, 8. Worcester, 9. Bath and Wells, 10. Salisbury, 11. Exeter, 12. Chichester, 13. Norwich, 14. Gloucester, 15. Oxford, 16. Peterborough, 17. Bristol; and in Wales, 18. St David's, 19. Landaff, 20. St Asaph, 21. Bangor.

In the province of York are, 1. The bishoprick of Durham, 2. Carlisle, and, 3. Chester.

In all, two archbishopricks and twenty-four bishopricks: to which may be added the bishoprick of Sodor and Man; but this bishop has no seat in the house of peers.

Universities.] There are but two universities in England; Oxford and Cambridge; but the great men educated in them, their numerous magnificent buildings, and rich endowments, are the admiration of all foreigners that visit them.

In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls, and upwards of two thousand students of all sorts.

In Cambridge there are sixteen colleges, and, though some of them are denominated halls, they are all endowed, and there is no manner of difference between a college and hall in Cambridge; whereas in Oxford the halls are not endowed, but the students maintain themselves.

The

The number of fellows, scholars, and students of all sorts, in the university of Cambridge, is usually about 1500.

There are professors in all languages in each of these universities, richly endowed; and King George I. in the year 1724, constituted a professor of modern history and language in each university, and on each of them settled a revenue of three hundred pounds per annum; but though these professors have enjoyed their salaries ever since the year 1724, they never read lectures in modern history; nor do other professors read lectures in the university.

Learning and learned Men.] The great Alfred first cultivated the sciences in the time of the Saxons, when barbarism and ignorance overspread the rest of Europe; nor has there since his time been wanting in England a continual succession of learned men, who have distinguished themselves by their writings or studies. These are so numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume.

The English institutions, for the benefit of study, partake of the character of their learning. They are solid and substantial, and provide for the ease, the disencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its professors; witness the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, institutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were respected even amidst the barbarous rage of civil war. The industrious Leland was the first who made a short collection of the lives and characters of those learned persons, who preceded the reign of his master Henry VIII. among whom he has inserted several of the blood-royal of both sexes, particularly a son and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the confessor, and other Saxon princes.

In the dark ages appeared one of the greatest prodigies of learning that perhaps ever existed, considering the time in which he lived; viz. the natural philosopher, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in science to the great Bacon, lord Verulam, as the latter was to Sir Isaac Newton. Among the other curious works ascribed to him by Leland, we find treatises upon the flux and reflux of the British sea, upon metallurgy, upon astronomy, cosmography, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford in 1248. The honourable Mr Walpole has preserved the memory of some noble and royal English authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muses, and to his work we must refer. Since the reformation, England hath very much abounded in literature*, and it is but doing justice to the memory of Cardinal Wolsey, though otherwise a dangerous and profligate minister, to acknowledge that both his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and the revival of classical learning in England. As many of the English clergy had different sentiments in religious matters at the time of the reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners, to settle in England. Edward VI. during his short life, paid a great deal for the encouragement of these foreigners, and shewed dispositions which had he lived must have been extremely favourable

* See the Biographia Britannica.

vourable to letters. Learning, as well as liberty, suffered an almost total eclipse in England, during the bloody bigotted reign of queen Mary. But Elizabeth, her sister, was herself a learned princess. She advanced many persons of consummate abilities to high rank, both in church and state, but she seems to have considered their literary accomplishments to have been only secondary to their civil. In this she shewed herself a great politician, but she would have been a more amiable queen, had she raised genius from obscurity; for though she was no stranger to Spencer's muse, she suffered herself to be so much imposed upon, by an unfeeling minister, that the poet languished to death in obscurity. Though she tasted the beauties of the divine Shakespeare, yet we know not that he was distinguished by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parsimony was nobly supplied by her favourite the earl of Essex, the politest scholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, who were patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Casaubon, and other foreign authors of distinction, even of different principles. He was himself no great author, but his example had a wonderful effect upon his subjects, for in his reign were formed those great masters of polemic divinity, whose works are almost inexhaustible mines of knowledge. Nor must it be forgot, that the second Bacon, whom we have already mentioned, was by him created viscount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewise the patron of Camden, and other historians, as well as antiquaries, whose works are to this day standards in those studies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that English learning is under great obligations to James I.

His son Charles I. had a taste for the polite arts, especially sculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artists, so that had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital, into a second Athens, and the collections he made for that purpose, considering his pecuniary difficulties, were stupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that respect, and laid out the amazing sum of 400,000*l.* sterling, upon his cabinet of paintings and curiosities. The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and by the immense acquisitions he made of antiquities, especially his famous marble inscriptions, may stand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greatest of the Medicean princes. Charles and his court, had little or no relish for poetry. But such was his generosity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increased the salary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Johnson, from 100 marks to 100*l.* per annum, and a tierce of Spanish wine; which salary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning, and the arts, suffered indeed an eclipse, during the time of the civil wars, and the succeeding usurpation. Many very learned men, however, found their situations under Cromwell, though he was no stranger to their political sentiments, so easy, that they followed their studies, to the
great

great benefit of every branch of learning; and many works of vast literary merit appeared even in those times of distraction. Usher, Willis, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmolested by that usurper, and he would even have filled the universities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of safety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly distinguished by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, especially by the institution of the royal society. The king himself was an excellent judge of those studies, and though irreligious himself, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable *Paradise Lost*, by Milton, was published in his reign; but so little read, that the impression did not pay the expence of 15*l.* given by the bookseller for the copy. The reign of Charles II. notwithstanding the bad taste of his court in several of the polite arts, by some is reckoned the Augustan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hook, Sydenham, Hervey, Temple, Tillotson, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit assumed more majesty, a better stile, and truer energy, than it ever had known before. Classic literature recovered many of its native graces, and though England could not under him boast of a Jones, and Vandyke, yet Sir Christopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than ever had been known before in architecture, and many excellent English painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) flourished in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewise had a taste for the fine arts, is chiefly distinguished in the province of literature, by those compositions that were published by the English divines against popery, and which, for strength of reasoning, and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. a prince, who neither understood, nor loved learning, or genius in any shape. It flourished, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the soil, in which it had been planted. It has been observed, that metaphysical reasoning, and a squeamish scepticism in religious matters, prevailed too much, and this has been generally attributed to his indifference as to sacred subjects. Argumentation, however, thereby acquired, and has still preserved a far more rational tone in every province of literature, than it had before, especially in religion and philosophy.

The improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auspices of Queen Anne, put her court, at least, on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its most splendid days. Many of the great men, who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were still alive, and in the full exercise of their faculties, when a new race sprung up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verse and prose, need but be mentioned to be admired. Natural and moral philosophy kept pace with the polite arts, and
even

even religious and political disputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in speculative matters.

The ministers of George I. were the patterns of erudition, and some of them were no mean proficients themselves. In this reign a poet held the pen of first secretary of state, though Mr Addison's talents were very inadequate to the post, and his temper still more.

Though George II. was himself no Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding, in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of bishops was never known to be so well provided with able prelates, as it was in the early years of his reign, a full proof that his nobility and ministers were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally supplied the coldness of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr Pelham was considered as first minister, the screen between government and literature was in a great measure removed, and men of genius began then to taste the royal bounty. In this king's reign the royal academies of Woolwich and Portsmouth were established; the first for teaching every branch of the military sciences; the latter for teaching those branches of the mathematics, which more immediately relate to navigation.

Besides learning, and the fine arts in general, the English excel, in what we call, the learned professions. Their courts of justice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than those which any other country can boast of. A remarkable instance of which, occurs in the appointments for the last 200 years of their lord chancellors, who hold the highest and the most uncontrollable judicial seat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that during that time, their bench has remained almost entirely unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections.

It must be acknowledged, that neither pulpit, nor bar-eloquence, has been much studied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people and their laws. The sermons of their divines are often learned, and always sound as to the practical and doctrinal part, but the many religious sects in England, require to be opposed rather by reasoning than by eloquence. An unaccountable notion has however prevailed even among the clergy themselves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demosthenes were weakened by those powers of language with which they are adorned.

The laws of England are of so peculiar a cast, that the several pleadings at the bar do not admit, or but very sparingly, of the flowers of speech, and a pleading in the Ciceronian manner would probably make a ridiculous appearance in Westminster-hall. The English lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well versed in rhetoric and reasoning.

Parliamentary speaking not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce so many examples of true eloquence; as the English senate in its two houses, witness the fine speeches made by both parties, in parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and those that have been printed since the accession of the present family.

Medecine

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried into great perfection by the English, and every member of the Medical profession is sure of an impartial hearing at the bar of the public. The same may be said of music and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechanism are now reduced in England to sciences, and that too without any public encouragement, but that given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose. In ship-building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery, they stand unrivalled.

Language.] As to the language of the English, it is needless to say any more of it, than that it is compounded of Dutch, Latin, and French. We do not know whether any of the ancient British words or phrases are retained.

Antiquities and Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] The antiquities of England, are either British, Roman, Saxon, or Danish, and Anglo-Normannic; but these, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient history. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, which probably were places of sacred worship in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr Stukeley, and others, described as a regular circular structure. The body of the work consists of two circles, and two ovals, which are thus composed. The upright stones are placed at three feet and a half distance from each other, and joined at top by over-thwart stones, with tenons fitted to the mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due position. Some of these stones are vastly large, measuring two yards in breadth, one in thickness, and above seven in height; others are less in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chissel, and something tapered; but the transomes, or over-thwart stones, are quite plain. The outside circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter; between which, and the next circle, there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a surprising and awful effect on the beholders. After all the descriptions of, and dissertations upon, this celebrated antiquity, by ingenious writers, it is not to be denied, that it has given rise to many extravagant ridiculous conjectures, from the time of Leland, who has been very particular on the subject, down to Stukeley, who, on a favourite point of antiquity, sometimes formed the most enthusiastic conjectures. The barrows that are near this monument were certainly graves of persons of both sexes, eminent in peace or war; some of them having been opened, and bones, arms, and ancient trinkets, found within them.

Monuments of the same kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland and the isles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the

civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland as beginning at Dover, and passing through Kent to London, from thence to St Alban's, Dunstable, Stratford, Towcester, Littleburn, St Gilbert's hill near Shrewsbury, then by Straton, and so through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris, called Hermen-street, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pomfret to Doncaster, strikes out to the Westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-street. There would, however, be no end of describing the vestiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which serve as foundations to our present highways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated English antiquary, had formed a noble plan for describing those which pass through Suffex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out, put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England. Their situations are generally so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so complete, that there is some reason to believe, that they were the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers in England, though it is certain, from the baths and tessellated pavements that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers and magistrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewise been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and castles are blended with those of a later date; and it is difficult for the most expert architect to pronounce that some halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulae, trinkets, and the like, that have been found in England; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England is the Prætenture, or Wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts Wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland, beginning at Tynmouth, and ending at Solway Firth, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch, but Severus built it with stone forts, and turrets, at proper distances, so that each might have a speedy communication with the other, and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the North, and a military high-way to the South. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to strike the Scots and Picts with terror, than to give any real security to the Roman possessions. In some places, the wall, the vallum, and the road, are plainly discernible, and the latter serves as a foundation for a modern work of the same kind, carried on at the public expence. A critical account of the Roman antiquities in England is among the desiderata of history, but perhaps it is too great a design for any one man to execute, as it cannot be done without visiting every place, and every object in person.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices and places of strength. At Winchester is shewn the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been disputed by Camden, and later writers, perhaps with reason; but if it is not British, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral

cathedral of Winchester served as the burial-place of several Saxon kings, whose bones were collected together by bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity present themselves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be discerned from the Normannic; and the British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witness, to his respective cross. The Danish erections in England are hardly discernible from the Saxon. The forms of their camps are round, and generally built upon eminences, but their forts are square.

All England is full of Anglo Normannic monuments, which we chuse to call so, because, though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman original, yet the expence was defrayed by Englishmen, with English money. Yorkminster, and Westminster-hall, and abbey, are perhaps the finest specimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals, and old churches in the kingdom, are more or less in the same taste, if we except St Paul's. In short, those erections are so common, that they scarcely deserve the name of curiosities. It is uncertain, whether the artificial excavations, found in some parts of England, are British, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old castle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and seems to have been designed for secreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invasion. It contains an oblong square hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the same rock, for sitting upon; and Tradition says, that it was the room in which the Barons of England met, during their wars with king John. The rock itself is soft, and easily penetrated; but it is hard to say where the excavation, which is continued in a square passage about six feet high, and four wide, terminates, because the work is fallen in some places.

The natural curiosities in England are so various, that we can touch upon them only in general; great numbers of medicinal springs are found almost in every county. They have been analysed with great accuracy and care, by several learned naturalists, who, as their interests, or inclinations led them, have not been sparing in recommending their salubrious qualities. England, however, is not singular in its medicinal water, though in some countries the discovering and examining them is scarce worth while. In England, a much frequented well or spring, is a certain estate to its proprietor. The most remarkable of these wells have been divided into those for bathing, and those for purging. The chief of the former lye in Somersetshire; and the Bath waters are famous through all the world, both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich in Surry; Acton and Islington in Middlesex. Here also are many remarkable springs, whereof some are impregnated either with salt, as that at Droitwich in Worcester; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as

that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicestershire; and a dropping well in the West Riding of Yorkshire. And finally, some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, and Laywell, near Torbay, whose waters rise and fall several times in an hour. To these we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's castle in Herefordshire, commonly called Bonewell, which is generally full of small bones, like those of frogs or fish, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancashire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any smell; yet there is so strong a vapour of sulphur issuing out with the stream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasts several hours, and emits so fierce a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itself will not burn when taken out of the well*.

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Man Tor, or Mother Tower, is said to be continually mouldering away, but never diminishes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the same place: this is a chasm in the side of a mountain, near seven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the last 80 were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for several paces, is very low, but soon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inside of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much short of what some have asserted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimension; a current of water which runs along the middle, adds, by its sounding stream, re-echoed on all sides, very much to the astonishment of all who visit this vast concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the sides, have an amusing effect; for they not only reflect numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides, but as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in several places, into various forms, which, with the help of a strong imagination, may pass for lions, fountains, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder, which is, from its hideousness, named the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who seem in a great measure to subsist by guiding strangers into the cavern, which is crossed by four streams of water, and then it is thought impassable. The vault, in several places, makes a noble appearance, which is particularly beautiful, by being chequered with various coloured stones. These are the most celebrated natural excavations in England, where they are beheld with great wonder, but are nothing comparable to those that exist in Germany, and other parts of Europe and Asia.

Some spots of England are said to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkshire, are found certain stones, resembling

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coal, which have been since dug from under this well, at which time the uncommon warmth ceased.

resembling the folds and wreaths of a serpent; also other stones of several sizes, and so exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon-balls, which being broke, do commonly contain the form and likeness of serpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In some parts of Gloucestershire, stones are found, resembling cockles, oysters, and other testaceous marine animals. Those curiosities, however, in other countries, would, as such, make but a poor appearance, and even in England they are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

Cities, Towns, Forts, and other } This head is so very exten-
Edifices, public and private. } sive, that we can only touch
upon subjects that can assist in giving the reader some idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

London*, the metropolis of the British empire, naturally takes the lead in this division; it appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and soon after became the capital of the island. It was first walled about with hewn stones, and British bricks, by Constantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishop of London was at the council of Arles, in the year 314; he also settled a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London, in its large sense, including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex, is a city of a very surprising extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the most extensive trade. This city, when considered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the center of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the countries in the world; is the grand mart of the nation, to which every part send their commodities, from whence they again are sent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages, by land and water, are constantly employed; and from hence arises that circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthy, vigorous, and in a prosperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head, and the most distant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen; witness their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such a noble and elegant appearance, or are better stocked.

It is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river, which, though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce of any in the world. It being continually filled with fleets, sailing to
or

* London is situated in 51° 31' north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of Dublin; 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 310 north-west of Paris, 300 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 north-west of Vienna, 790 south-west of Stockholm, 800 north-east of Madrid, 810 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of Lisbon, 1360 north-west of Constantinople, and 1414 south-west of Moscow.

or from the most distant climates; and its banks being from London-bridge to Blackwall, almost one continued great magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, thirty-two dry docks, and thirty-three yards for the building of ships for the use of the merchants, beside the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards lower down the river for the building men of war. As this city is about sixty miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moist vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water-side, and extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from East to West in a kind of amphitheatre towards the North, and is continued for near twenty miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country seats of gentlemen and tradesmen; where the latter retire for the benefit of the fresh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of business. The regard paid by the legislature to the property of the subject, has hitherto prevented any bounds being affixed for its extension.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. However, its length from East to West is generally allowed to be above seven miles, from Hyde-park corner to Poplar; and its breadth, in some places three, in others two, and in others not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almost eighteen miles. But it is much easier to form an idea of the large extent of a city so irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are generally computed to be near a million, though Mr. Entic reckons them only at 500,000; and from the number of edifices devoted to the service of religion.

Of these, besides St Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Westminster, there are 102 parish-churches, and 69 chapels of the established religion; 21 French Protestant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 33 Baptist meetings; 26 Independent meetings; 28 Presbyterian meetings; 19 Popish chapels, and meeting-houses for the use of foreign ambassadors, and people of various sects; and three Jews synagogues. So that there are 326 places devoted to religious worship, in the compass of this vast pile of building, without reckoning the 21 out-parishes, usually included within the bills of mortality.

There are also in and near this city, 100 alms-houses, about 20 hospitals and infirmaries, three colleges, 10 public prisons, 15 flesh-markets; one market for live-cattle, two other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public squares, beside those within any single buildings, as the temple, &c. three bridges, 49 halls for companies, eight public schools, called free schools; and 131 charity schools, which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns. 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houses, 5975 ale-houses; 1000 hackney coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 streets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 130 000 dwelling-houses, containing, as has been already observed, about 1,000,000 of inhabitants, who, according to a late estimate, consume annually the following articles of provisions:

Black

Black cattle	98,244
Sheep and lambs	711,123
Calves	194,760
Swine	186,932
Pigs	52,000
Poultry, and wild fowl innumerable	
Mackarel sold at Billingsgate	14,740,000
Buthels of oysters	115,536
Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over } and above those brought by land-carriage, and } great quantities of river and salt-fish	1,398
Pounds weight of butter, about	16,000,000
Cheese, ditto, about	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	7,000,000
Barrels of strong beer	1,172,494
Barrels of small beer	798,495
Tons of foreign wines	30,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other distilled wa- } ters, above	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	11,000,000

London bridge was first built of stone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in course of time gave rise to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs; from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly since the year 1756, when the houses were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The passage for carriages is thirty-one feet broad, and seven feet on each side for foot-passengers. It crosses the Thames where it is 915 feet broad, and has at present nineteen arches of about twenty feet wide each, but the centre one is considerably larger.

Westminster bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of stone, and extends over the river at a place where it is 1223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London bridge. On each side is a fine ballustrade of stone with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is forty-four feet, having on each side a fine foot-way for passengers. It consists of fourteen piers, and of thirteen large, and two small arches, all semi-circular, that in the centre being seventy-six feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the thirteen great ones, are each fifty-two feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000*l.* in stone, and other materials, is always under water. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750, at the expence of 389,000*l.* defrayed by the parliament.

Blackfriars bridge falls nothing short of that of Westminster, either in magnificence or workmanship; but the situation of the ground on the two shores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many unquestionable judges prefer it to Westminster bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expence of 152,840*l.* to be discharged by a toll upon the passengers. It is situated almost at an equal distance between those

those of Westminster and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and discovers the majesty of St Paul's in a very striking manner.

The cathedral of St Paul's is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular Protestant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross, on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman Orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St Peter's at Rome, to which in some respects it is superior. St Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Christopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finished the building thirty-seven years after he himself laid the first stone. It takes up six acres of ground, tho' the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it, after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million sterling.

Westminster-abbey, or the collegiate church of Westminster, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothic taste. It was first built by Edward the Confessor; King Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the East end of it; this is the repository of the deceased British kings and nobility; and here are also monuments erected to the memory of many great and illustrious personages, commanders by sea and land, philosophers, poets, &c. In the reign of Queen Anne 4000*l.* a-year, out of the coal-duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inside of the church of St Stephen's Walbrook, is admired for its lightness and elegance, and does honour to the memory of Sir Christopher Wren. The same may be said of the Steeples of St Mary-le-Bow, and St Bride's, which are supposed to be the most complete in their kind of any in Europe. The simplicity of the portico in Covent-Garden is worthy the purest ages of ancient architecture. That of St Martin's in the Fields would be noble and striking, could it be seen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taste, and even some of the chapels have gracefulness and proportion to recommend them. The Banqueting-house at Whitehall is but a very small part of a noble palace, designed by Inigo Jones, for the royal residence, and as it now stands, under all its disadvantages, its symmetry, and ornaments, are in the highest style and execution of architecture.

Westminster-hall, though on the outside it makes a mean, and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is said to be the largest room in the world, it being 220 feet long, and 70 broad. Its roof is the finest of its kind that can be seen. Here are held the coronation feasts of our kings and queens; also the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas, and, above stairs, that of the exchequer.

That beautiful column called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being destroyed by fire, is justly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric Order, exceeds all the obelisks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a stair-case in the middle to ascend to the balcony, which

which is about 30 feet short of the top, from whence there are other steps, made for persons to look out at the top of all, which is fashioned like an urn, with a flame issuing from it. On the base of the Monument, next the street, the destruction of the city, and the relief given to the sufferers by Charles II. and his brother, is emblematically represented in bas relief. The North and South sides of the base have each a Latin inscription, the one describing its dreadful desolation †, and the other its splendid resurrection; and on the East side is an inscription, shewing when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by Sir Christopher Wren in 1671, and finished by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13,000*l*.

The Royal Exchange is a large noble building, and is said to have cost above 80,000*l*.

We might here give a description of the Tower, *, Bank of England,

† Which may be thus rendered: "In the year of Christ, 1666, Sept. 2. Eastward from hence, at the distance of 152 feet (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which, driven on by a high wind, not only wasted the adjacent parts, but also very remote places, with incredible crackling and fury. It consumed 89 churches, the city-gate, Guildhall, many public structures, hospitals, schools, libraries, a vast number of stately edifices, 13,000 dwelling-houses, and 400 streets. Of the 26 wards it utterly destroyed 15, and left eight others shattered and half burnt. The ruins of the city were 436 acres, from the Tower by the Thames-side to the Temple-church, and from the North-East along the wall to Holborn-bridge. To the estates and fortunes of the citizens it was merciless, but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things resemble the last conflagration of the world. The destruction was sudden; for in a small space of time the city was seen most flourishing, and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when this fatal fire had baffled all human counsels and endeavours; in the opinion of all, it stopped, as it were by a command from heaven, and was on every side extinguished."

* In examining the curiosities of the Tower of London, it will be proper to begin with those on the outside the principal gate; the first thing a stranger usually goes to visit is the wild beasts; which, from their situation, first present themselves: for having entered the outer-gate, and passed what is called the spur-guard, the keeper's house presents itself before you, which is known by a painted lion on the wall, and another over the door which leads to their dens. By ringing a bell, and paying sixpence each person, you may easily gain admittance.

The next place worthy of observation is the Mint, which comprehends near one third of the Tower, and contains houses for all the officers belonging to the coinage. On passing the principal gate you see the White Tower, built by William the Conqueror. This is a large, square, irregular stone building, situated almost in the center, no one side answering to another, nor any of its watch-towers, of which there are four at the top, built alike. One of those towers is now converted into an observatory. In the first story are two noble rooms, one of which is a small armoury for the sea-service, it having various sorts of arms, very curiously laid up, for above 10,000 seamen. In the other room are many closets and presses, all filled with warlike engines and instruments of death. Over this are two other floors, one principally filled with arms; the other with arms and other warlike instruments, as spades, shovels, pick-axes, and cheveaux de frize. In the upper story are kept match, sheep-skins, tanned hides, &c. and in a little room, called Julius Cæsar's chapel, are deposited some records, containing perhaps the ancient usages and customs of the place. In this building are also preserved the models

land, the New-treasury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horse-guards at Whitehall, the mansion-house of the Lord-mayor, British museum, and

dels of the new-invented engines of destruction that have from time to time been presented to the government. Near the South-West angle of the White Tower is the Spanish armoury, in which are deposited the spoils of what was vainly called the invincible Armada; in order to perpetuate to latest posterity, the memory of that signal victory, obtained by the English over the whole naval power of Spain, in the reign of Philip II.

You come now to the guard store-house, a noble building, to the Northward of the White Tower, that extends 145 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. It was begun by King James II. who built it to the first floor; but it was finished by King William III. who erected that magnificent room called the New, or Small Armoury, in which that prince, with Queen Mary, his consort, dined in great form, having all the warrant workmen and labourers to attend them, dressed in white gloves and aprons, the usual badges of the order of masonry. To this noble room you are led by a folding-door, adjoining to the East end of the Tower-chapel, which leads to a grand staircase of 50 easy steps. On the left side of the uppermost landing-place is the workshop, in which are constantly employed about 14 furbishers, in cleaning, repairing, and new-placing the arms. On entering the armoury, you see what they call a wilderness of arms, so artfully disposed, that at one view you behold arms for near 80,000 men, all bright, and fit for service: a sight which it is impossible to behold without astonishment; and besides those exposed to view, there were, before the late war, 16 chests shut up, each chest holding about 1,200 muskets. The arms were originally disposed by Mr Harris, who contrived to place them in this beautiful order, both here and in the guard-chamber of Hampton-court. He was a common gun-smith; but after he had performed this work, which is the admiration of people of all nations, he was allowed a pension from the crown for his ingenuity.

Upon the ground-floor, under the small armoury, is a large room of equal dimensions with that, supported by 20 pillars, all hung round with implements of war. This room, which is 24 feet high, has a passage in the middle 16 feet wide. At the sight of such a variety of the most dreadful engines of destruction, before whose thunder the most superb edifices, the noblest works of art, and number of the human species, fall together in one common and undistinguished ruin, one cannot help wishing that those horrible inventions had still lain, like a false conception, in the womb of Nature, never to have been ripened into birth.

The horse-armoury is a plain brick building, a little eastward of the White Tower, and is an edifice rather convenient than elegant, where the spectator is entertained with a representation of those kings and heroes of our own nation, with whose gallant actions it is to be supposed he is well acquainted, some of them equipped and sitting on horseback, in the same bright and shining armour they were used to wear when they performed those glorious actions that gave them a distinguished place in the British annals.

You come now to the line of kings, which your conductor begins by reversing the order of chronology, so that in following them we must place the last first.

In a dark, strong, stone room, about 20 yards to the eastward of the grand store-house, or new armoury, the crown-jewels are deposited. I. The imperial crown, with which it is pretended that all the kings of England have been crowned since Edward the Confessor, in 1042. It is of gold, enriched with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, sapphires and pearls: the cap within is of purple velvet, lined with white taffety, turned up with three rows of ermine. They are however mistaken in shewing this as the ancient imperial diadem of St Edward; for that, with the other most ancient regalia of this kingdom, was kept in the arched room in the cloisters in Westminster Abbey, till the grand rebellion; when in 1641 Harry Martin, by order of the parliament, broke

and a vast number of other public buildings; but as these would necessarily exceed our limits, we shall content ourselves with giving an

broke open the iron chest in which it was secured, took it thence, and fold it, together with the robes, sword, and sceptre, of St Edward. However, after the restoration, king Charles II. had one made in imitation of it, which is that now shewn. II. The golden orb or globe, put into the king's right hand before he is crowned; and borne in his left hand, with the sceptre in his right, upon his return into Westminster-hall after he is crowned. It is about six inches in diameter, edged with pearls, and enriched with precious stones. On the top is an amethyst, of a violet colour, near an inch and an half in height, set with a rich cross of gold, adorned with diamonds, pearls, and precious stones. The whole height of the ball and cup is 11 inches. III. The golden sceptre, with its cross set upon a large amethyst of great value, garnished round with table-diamonds. The handle of the scepter is plain, but the pommel is set round with rubies, emeralds, and small diamonds. The top rises into a *fleur de lis* of six leaves, all enriched with precious stones, from whence issues a mound or ball, made of the amethyst already mentioned. The cross is quite covered with precious stones. IV. The scepter with the dove, the emblem of peace, perched on the top of a small Jerusalem cross, finely ornamented with table-diamonds and jewels of great value. This emblem was first used by Edward the Confessor, as appears by his seal; but the ancient scepter and dove was sold with the rest of the regalia, and this now in the tower was made after the restoration. V. St Edward's staff, four feet seven inches and a half in length, and three inches three quarters in circumference, all of beaten gold, which is carried before the king at his coronation. VI. The rich crown of state, worn by his majesty in parliament; in which is a large emerald seven inches round; a pearl esteemed the finest in the world, and a ruby of inestimable value. VII. The crown belonging to his royal highness the prince of Wales. The king wears his crown upon his head while he sits upon the throne, but that of the prince of Wales is placed before him, to shew that he is not yet come to it. VIII. The late queen Mary's crown, globe, and scepter, with the diadem she wore at her coronation with her consort king William III. IX. An ivory scepter, with a dove on the top, made for king James II.'s queen, whose garniture is gold, and the dove on the top gold, enamelled with white. X. The *curtana*, or sword of mercy, which has a blade thirty-two inches long, and near two broad, is without a point, and is borne naked before the king at his coronation, between the two swords of justice, spiritual and temporal. XI. The golden spurs, and the armillas, which are bracelets for the wrists. These, though very antique, are worn at the coronation. XII. The *ampulla*, or eagle of gold, finely engraved, which holds the holy oil the kings and queens of England are anointed with; and the golden spoon that the bishop pours the oil into. These are two pieces of great antiquity. The golden eagle, including the pedestal, is about nine inches high, and the wings expand about seven inches. The whole weighs about ten ounces. The head of the eagle screws off about the middle of the neck, which is made hollow for holding the holy oil; and when the king is anointed by the bishop, the oil is poured into the spoon out of the bird's bill. XIII. A rich salt-cellar of state, in form like the square white tower, and so exquisitely wrought, that the workmanship of modern times is in no degree equal to it. It is of gold, and used only on the king's table at the coronation. XIV. A noble silver font, double gilt, and elegantly wrought, in which the royal family are christened. XV. A large silver fountain, presented to king Charles II. by the town of Plymouth, very curiously wrought, but much inferior in beauty to the above. Besides these, which are commonly shewn, there are in the jewel-office, all the crown jewels worn by the princes and princesses at coronations, and a great variety of curious old plate.

an account, in the note, of some of the principal curiosities contained in the tower and museum †.

This great city is happily supplied with abundance of fresh water from

The Record-Office consists of three rooms, one above another, and a large round room, where the rolls are kept. These are all handsomely wainscotted, the wainscot being framed into presses round each room, within which are shelves, and repositories for the records; and for the easier finding of them, the year of each reign is inscribed on the inside of these presses, and the records placed accordingly. Within these presses, which amount to fifty-six in number, are deposited all the rolls, from the first year of the reign of king John, to the beginning of the reign of Richard III. but those after this last period are kept in the rolls chapel. The records in the tower, among other things, contain, the foundation of abbies, and other religious houses; the ancient tenures of all the lands in England, with a survey of the manors; the original of laws and statutes, proceedings of the courts of common law and equity, the rights of England to the dominion of the British seas, leagues and treaties with foreign princes, the achievements of England in foreign wars, the settlement of Ireland, as to law and dominion, the forms of submission of some Scottish kings, for territories held in England, ancient grants of our kings to their subjects, privileges and immunities granted to cities and corporations during the period above-mentioned, enrollments of charters and deeds made before the conquest, the bounds of all the forests in England, with the several respective rights of the inhabitants to common pasture, and many other important records, all regularly disposed, and referred to in near a thousand folio indexes. This office is kept open, and attendance constantly given, from seven o'clock till one, except in the months of December, January, and February, when it is open only from eight to one, Sundays and holidays excepted. A search here is half a guinea, for which you may peruse any one subject a year.

† The British Museum is deposited in Montague-house. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the British Museum: for its being established by parliament was only in consequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural history, his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him 50,000*l.* to the use of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000*l.* to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuscripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchased likewise by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late Majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto, the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.

The Sloanian collection consists of an amazing number of curiosities, among which are the library, including books of drawings, manuscripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals, and coins ancient and modern, 23,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals, 268. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious stones, agates, jasper, &c. 2,156. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Crystals, spars, &c. 1,864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1,275. Earths, sands, salts, 1,035. Bitumens, sulphurs, ambers, &c. 599. Tales micæ, &c. 388. Corals, sponges, &c. 1,421. Testacea, or shells, &c. 5,843. Echini, echinitæ, &c. 659. Asteriaci trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Crustaceæ, or crabs, lobsters, &c. 363. Stellæ marinæ, star-fishes, &c. 173. Fish and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and nests, of different species, 1,172. Quad-upeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus siccus, or volumes of dried plants. 334. Humani æ calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miscellaneous things, natural, 2,098. Mathematical instruments, 55.

A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of a large volumes.

from the Thames and the New-river; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but, by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with the parish-officers, the city is, in a great measure, secured from the spreading of fire; for these plugs are no sooner opened than there is vast quantities of water to supply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage, it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods, from fire; an advantage that is not to be met with in any other nation on earth: the premium is small *, and the recovery, in case of loss, is easy and certain. Every one of these offices keep a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in case of fire; and who are on all occasions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent; but though all their labours should prove unsuccessful, the person who suffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that must arise from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has insured.

If the use and advantage of public magnificence is considered as a national concern, it will be found to be of the utmost consequence, in promoting the welfare of mankind, as that attention to it, which encouragement will produce, must necessarily stimulate the powers of invention and ingenuity, and of course create employment for great numbers of artists, who, exclusive of the reward of their abilities, cannot fail of striking out many things which will do honour to themselves, and to their country. This consideration alone, is without doubt highly worthy of a commercial people; it is this which gives the preference to one country, in comparison with another, and it is this which distinguishes the genius of a people, in the most striking manner.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London (which like most other great cities had arisen from small beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable

* The terms of insurance are as follows. viz. every person insuring, &c. d

shall pay for every 100 l. insures on goods inclosed in brick or stone	3 s 0
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods	3 0
If hazardous	4 0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	5 0
If hazardous, and hazardous	6 0
For every 100 l. insured on goods, inclosed in part brick, and part timber	2 6
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods	3 9
If hazardous	5 0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	6 3
If hazardous and hazardous	7 6
For every 100 l. insured on goods, inclosed in timber	3 0
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods	4 6
If hazardous	6 0
If hazardous and half hazardous	7 6
If hazardous and hazardous	9 0

The premium is double upon any sum between one and two thousand, and treble between two and three thousand pounds.

countable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city scarce ever free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of consequences, which made ample amends for the losses sustained by individuals; a new city arose on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet by no means answerable to the characters of magnificence or elegance, in some particulars, as shall be hereafter mentioned, and it is ever to be lamented (such was the infatuation of those times) that the magnificent, elegant, and useful plan of the great Sir Christopher Wren, was totally disregarded and sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of private property; views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themselves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been asserted must have been the result, the metropolis of this kingdom would incontestably have been the most magnificent and elegant city in the universe, and of consequence must, from the prodigious resort of foreigners of distinction and taste who would have visited it, have become an inexhaustible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindness of that age has deprived us of so valuable an acquisition, it is become absolutely necessary that some efforts should be made to render the present plan in a greater degree answerable to the character of the richest and most powerful people in the world.

The plan of London, in its present state, will, in many instances, appear to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a disposition as can possibly be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the borders of so noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are despicable and inconvenient beyond conception. Let any one who has a tolerable taste, and some idea of public magnificence, give himself the trouble of considering the state of the buildings, quays, and wharfs, on both sides the river Thames, from Chelsea to Blackwall, on the one hand, and from Battersea to Greenwich on the other, and he will be immediately convinced, that there is not one convenient, well regulated spot (as the buildings thereon are at present disposed) either for business or elegance, in that whole extent. After he has considered the state of the banks of the river, he may continue his observation upon the interior parts of the town, and naturally turn his eyes upon these useful places to the trading part of the world, Wapping, Rotherhithe, and Southwark, all contiguous to the Thames, and all entirely destitute of that useful regularity, convenience and utility, so very desirable in commercial cities. The observer may from hence direct his view to Tower-hill, the custom-house, Thames-street, Watling-street, and the passages to London-bridge; thence to the miserably contrived avenues into Spital-fields, Whitechapel, and Moorfields. He may consider the situation of St Paul's, and other churches, that of the monument, the companies halls, and other public buildings, that are thrust up in corners, and placed in such a manner as must tempt every foreigner to believe that they were designed to be concealed. The observer may next take in all those wretched parts which he will find on both
sides

sides the Fleet-market; necessity will oblige him to proceed into Smithfield, for the sake of breathing a fresher air; and when he has considered a spot, capable of the greatest advantages, but destitute of any, he may plunge into the deplorable avenues and horrid passages in that neighbourhood. He may thence proceed to Baldwin's gardens, through the ruins of which, if he escapes without hurt, he may reach Gray's-inn lane; which, though one of the principal avenues to this metropolis, is despicable beyond conception. From thence he may travel into Holborn, where the first object that presents itself to view is Middle-row, a nuisance universally detested, but suffered to remain a public disgrace to the finest street in London. He may hobble on with some satisfaction, until he arrives at Broad St Giles, where, if he can bear to see a fine situation covered with ruinous buildings, and inhabited by the most deplorable objects that human nature can furnish, he may visit the environs. From hence he may proceed along Oxford-street, and striking into the town on which hand he pleases, he will observe the finest situation covered with a profusion of deformity, that has been obtruded on the public, for want of a general, well-regulated, limited plan, which should have been enforced by commissioners appointed by authority, men of sound judgment, taste, and activity; had that happily been the case, all the glaring absurdities, which are perpetually staring in the faces, and insulting the understandings of persons of science and taste, would never have had existence. But private property, and pitiful, mean undertakings, suited to the capacities of the projectors, have taken place of that regularity and elegance, which a general plan would have produced; and nothing in these parts seems to have been considered for twenty years past, but the interest of a few tasteless builders, who have entered into a combination, with no other view than fleecing the public, and of extending and distorting the town, till they have rendered it completely ridiculous. From hence the observer, in his road to the city of Westminster, may have a peep at St James's, the residence of the most powerful and respectable monarch in the universe: a prince, who is himself a lover of the arts, and under whose happy auspices artists of real merit and ingenuity can never doubt of obtaining patronage and encouragement. The observer will not be better satisfied when he has reached Westminster, when he considers what might have been done, and how little has been done, when so fine an opportunity presented itself. From Westminster-bridge he may conduct himself into St George's Fields; one of the few spots about London which has not yet fallen a sacrifice to the depraved taste of modern builders; here he may indulge himself with the contemplation of what advantageous things may yet be done for this hitherto neglected metropolis.

From what has been said of the cities of London and Westminster, there cannot remain the least doubt but that their state, with regard to magnificence, elegance, or conveniency, is in such places very despicable; but we have the pleasure to find, that the necessity of rendering them otherwise is now become a matter of serious concern to persons in power; and that some general plan is likely to be formed and observed for their improvement. In the cities of Paris, Berlin, Edinburgh, Rotterdam, and other places, the government

ment takes cognizance of all public buildings; both useful and ornamental.

Of late a method hath been adopted of paying and enlightening the streets, upon the plan of the High-street of Edinburgh; an improvement which is felt in the most sensible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for several miles round upon the same plan; and, exclusive of lamps regularly placed on each side, at short distances, are rendered more safe by watchmen placed within a call of each other, who are protected from the weather by proper boxes. Nothing can appear more brilliant than those lights when viewed at a distance, especially where the roads run across; and even the principal streets, such as Pall-Mall, New Bond-street, Oxford-street, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence; upon the whole, there never was, in any age or country, a public scheme adopted which reflects more glory upon government, or does greater honour to the person who originally proposed and supported it.

The embanking the river, and many other improvements now in agitation, supported by gentlemen of taste and public spirit, give reason to hope, that this hitherto neglected metropolis will become, in point of beauty, conveniency, and elegance, what it is in wealth and commerce, the glory of the Island, the admiration of every stranger, and the first city on earth.

Windfor-castle is the only fabric that deserves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding situation; which, with the form of its construction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton-court was the favourite residence of King William. It is built in the Dutch taste, and has some good apartments, and, like Windfor, lyes near the Thames. Both these places have some good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and dissipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which, for design and expression, are reckoned the master-pieces of painting, have by his present majesty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton-court, to the queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-house, in St James's Park. The palace of St James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kensington, which was purchased from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens, which are laid out in a grand taste. Other houses, though belonging to the king, are far from deserving the name of royal.

Foreigners have been puzzled to account how it happens that the monarchs of the richest nation in Europe should be so indifferently lodged, especially as Charles I. whose finances were but low, compared to some of his successors, had he lived undisturbed, would more than probably have compleated the august plan which Inigo Jones drew for a royal palace, and which would have been every way suitable to an English monarch's dignity. The truth is, his son Charles II. though he had a fine taste for architecture, dissipated his revenues upon his pleasures. The reign of his brother was too short for such an undertaking. Perpetual wars during the reigns of King William and Queen Anne, left the parliament no money to spare for a palace. The two succeeding monarchs were indifferent

as to such a piece of grandeur in England; and though several schemes were drawn up for that purpose, yet they came to nothing, especially as three millions of money were necessary for carrying it into execution. We have, however, every thing to expect during the present reign, when architecture and magnificence shine out in their full lustre.

It would be needless, and, indeed, endless, to attempt even a catalogue of the houses of the nobility and gentry in the neighbourhood of London, and all over the kingdom. They are by far more superb and elegant than the subjects of any other nation can display; witness those of the Duke of Devonshire, the Countess of Leicester, Lord Scarfdale, the Earl Temple, and Earl Pembroke, where more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the possession of any subject in the world; Sir Grigory page, the Earl of Tilney, and hundreds of others equally grand and sumptuous. But those capital houses of the English nobility and gentry have an excellency distinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being suitable to each other, both in construction and furniture, and all kept in the highest preservation. It often happens, that the house, however elegant and costly, is not the principal object of the seat, which consists in its hortulane and rural decorations: Vistas, opening landscapes, temples, all of them the result of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

It cannot be expected that we should here enter into a detail of the chief towns of England; which, to say the truth, have little besides their commerce, and the conveniency of their situation, to recommend them, though some of them have noble public buildings and bridges. Bristol is thought to be the largest city in the British dominions, after London and Dublin, and to contain about 100,000 inhabitants. No nation in the world can shew such dock-yards, and all conveniencies for the construction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portsmouth (the most regular fortification in England) Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hospital at Greenwich for superannuated seamen is scarcely exceeded by any royal palace for its magnificence and expence. In short, every town in England is noted for some particular production or manufacture, to which its buildings and appearance are generally fitted; and though England contains many excellent and commodious sea-ports, yet all of them have an immediate connection with London, which is the common centre of national commerce.

History.] It is generally agreed, that the first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celts, that settled on the opposite shore; a supposition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cæsar, about 52 years before the birth of Christ, meditated a conquest of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the former were. Cæsar wrote the history of his two expeditions, which he pretended

were accompanied with vast difficulties, and attended by such advantages over the islanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary, and other authors, as well as Caesar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indecisive; nor did the Romans receive the least advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the island than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Caesar's descent, were governed, in time of war, by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hertfordshire, and some of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for some time.

In their manner of life, as described by Caesar, and the best authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the Northern climates known at this day, but they certainly sowed corn, though, perhaps, they chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their cloathing was skins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were dexterous in the management of their chariots beyond credibility, and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as sovereigns of their particular districts. They favoured a primogenitor, or seniority, in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies, on their skins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themselves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but their children belonged to the original husband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Augustus Caesar, rather as allies than tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Caesar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful against Britain. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea made noble stands against the Romans. The former was taken prisoner, after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicea, after cruelly massacring 70,000 Romans, and destroying London, was defeated, and disdaining to survive the liberties of her country, put an end to her own life; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, into Caledonia, where he made great progress, though every inch of ground was bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this island, they erected those walls already mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts, (the latter are thought to have been the Southern Britons retired Northwards;) and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems, however, to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies abroad, on account of the superior strength of body and courage of the inhabitants, when disciplined.

explained. That this was the case, appears plainly enough from the defenceless state of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that island. During the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; but it is certain, that under them the South Britons became the most abject slaves, and that the genius of liberty retreated Northwards, where the natives had made a brave resistance against the conquerors of the world. For though the Britons were unquestionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, we know of no struggle they made in later times, for their independency at home, notwithstanding the many favourable opportunities that offered. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this island, assisted by the Britons, were entirely employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts, and they appeared to have been in no pain about the Southern Provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire, with infinite numbers, fury, and danger to Rome itself*, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and center of the empire. As the Roman forces decreased in Britain, the Scots and Picts, who had always opposed the progress of the Romans in this island, advanced the more boldly into the Southern parts, carrying terror and desolation over the whole country. The effeminate Britons were so habituated to slavery, and accustomed to have recourse to the Romans for defence, that they again and again implored the return of the Romans, who as often drove back the invaders to their mountains and ancient limits beyond the walls: But these enterprises served only to protract the miseries of the Britons; and the Romans, now reduced to extremities at home, and fatigued with these distant expeditions, acquainted the Britons, that they must no longer look to them for protection, exhorted them to arm in their own defence; and, that they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers; and having done this good office, took their last farewell of Britain, about the year 448, after having been masters of the most fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invasion of Julius Cæsar 500 years.

The Scots and Picts, finding the whole island finally deserted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a rage and fury peculiar to Northern nations in those ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inspire. The poor Britons, like a helpless family, deprived of their parent and protector, already subdued by their own fears, had again recourse to Rome, and sent over their miserable epistle for relief (still upon record) which was addressed in these words: *To Actius, thrice consul: The groans of the Britons:* and told them, after other lamentable complaints, *That the barbarians drove them to the sea, and the sea back to the barbarians: and they had only the hard choice left of perishing*

* See the Introduction.

by the sword or by the waves. But having no hopes given them by the Roman general, of any succours from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief: and we have from Gildas, who was himself a Briton (and describes the degeneracy of his countrymen in lamentable strains) but very dark confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, who struck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horfa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English channel, and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia, and the Northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved by checking the progress of the Scots and Picts: and had the island of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time Hengist and Horfa began to meditate a settlement for themselves; and fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent struggle of near 150 years, they subdued, or drove into Wales; where their language and descendants still remain.

Literature at this time in England was so rude, that we know but little of its history. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public transactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a species of men whom they held in great veneration. Nennius, who seems to have been contemporary with Gildas, mentions, indeed, a few facts, but nothing that can be relied on, or that can form a connected history. We can, therefore, only mention the names of Merlin, a reputed prince and prophet; Pendragon, the celebrated Arthur, and Thalieffin, whose works are said to be extant, with others of less note. All we know upon the whole is, that after repeated bloody wars, in which the Britons were sometimes the enemies, and sometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons became masters of all England, to the South of Adrian's, or rather Severus's wall; but the Scots and Picts seem to have been masters of all the territory to the North of that, though they suffered the Britons, who had been driven Northwards, to be governed by their own tributary kings: an intermixture that has created great doubts and confusions in history; which we shall not here pretend to unravel.

We have no account of their conversion to Christianity but from Popish writers, who generally endeavour to magnify the merits of their superiors. According to them, Ethelbert, king of Kent, who claimed pre-eminence in the heptarchy, as being descended from Hengist, married the king of France's daughter, and she being a Christian, Pope Gregory the Great seized that opportunity to enforce the conversion of her husband to Christianity, or rather to Popery. For that purpose, about the year 596, he sent over to England the famous Austin, the monk, who probably found no great difficulty in converting the king and his people; and also Sebert, king of the East Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St Paul in London. The monk then, by his master's order, attempted

attempted to bring the churches of the Britons in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly as to the celebration of Easter; but finding a stout resistance on the part of the bishops and clergy, he persuaded his Christian converts to massacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 priests and monks, and reduced the Britons, who were found in the heptarchy, to a state of slavery, which some think gave rise to the ancient villenage in England. Aultin is accounted the first archbishop of Canterbury, and died in 605; as his convert Ethelbert did soon after.

The separate histories of the particular nations that formed the heptarchy is both uncertain and unintertaining. We can only say with certainty, that the pope, in Augustine's time, supplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popish clergy took care to keep their kings and nobility under the most deplorable ignorance, but always recognising the power and sanctity of his Holiness. Hence it was, that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by priests and monks; and, as they saw convenient, persuaded their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days; no less than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, resigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina, king of the West Saxons, though in other respects he was a wise and brave prince. The bounty of these Anglo-Saxon kings to the see of Rome was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, imposed an annual tax of a penny upon every house, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's Pence.

The Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, commonly chose one who was to be the head of their political confederacy, for regulating their concerns, but without any jurisdiction in the dominions of others. The clergy, we may easily suppose, had great influence on those occasions; and the history which we have of the Saxon heptarchy is little more than that of crimes, treasons, and murders, committed by the instigations of priests and monks. Even their criminal law admitted of a pecuniary compensation for murder, and regicide itself.

Under all those disadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in comparison of the nations on the continent; because they were free from the Saracens, or successors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the East, upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain, Italy, and France. London was then a place of very considerable trade; and if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles, quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Wessex, a sum in silver equal to 90,000l. sterling in the year 694. England, therefore, we may suppose to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable Bede then composed his church-history of Britain. The Saxon chronicle is one of the oldest and most authentic monuments of history that any nation can produce. An architecture, such as it was, with stone and glass working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was served in silver plates. It must, however, be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are
many

many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouses are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this state was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldest remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who first arrived in Britain.

Charles the Great, otherwise Charlemagne, who was then king of France, and emperor of Germany, entered into a commercial treaty with Offa, king of Mercia, to whom he sent in a present, a Hungarian sword, a belt, and two silken vests. Egbert had been obliged, by state-jealousies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the persecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Brithrick, king of the West-Saxons. Egbert acquired at the court of Charles the arts both of war and government, and soon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own person, but without subduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-land, or England; but there is reason to believe that some part of England continued still to be govern'd by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, tho' they paid, perhaps, a small tribute to Egbert. His prosperity excited the envy of the Northern nations, who, under the name of Danes, then infested the seas, and were no strangers to the coasts of England; for about the year 832 they made descents upon Kent and Dorsetshire, where they defeated Egbert in person, and carried off abundance of booty to their ships. About two years after, they landed in Cornwall, and, though they were joined by the Cornish Britons, they were driven out of England by Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Winchester, his chief residence.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. By this time England had become a scene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Danish invasions; and Ethelwolf, after some time bravely opposing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which place he carried with him his youngest son, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the English constitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occasion (copies of which are still remaining) are so prodigious, that they shew his brain to have been touched by his devotion. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his sons, (Athelstan being then dead,) Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the surviving son, lost his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the sea-coasts, and the finest counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greatest princes mentioned in history. He fought seven battles with the Danes, with various success, and always found resources which rendered him terrible. He was, however, at one time, reduced to an uncommon state of misery, being forced to live in the disguise of a cow-herd; but still kept up a secret correspondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their assistance he gave the Danes many signal overthrows, till at last

last he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes, who had been settled in it, to swear obedience to his government: even part of Wales courted his protection; so that he is thought to have been the most powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign was that of raising a maritime power in England, by which he secured her coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the university of Oxford about the year 895: He divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived those divisions, and the use of juries, which had fallen into desuetude by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was himself not only a scholar, but an author; and he tells us himself, that upon his accession to the throne he had scarcely a lay-subject who could read English, or an ecclesiastic who understood Latin. He introduced stone and brick buildings to general use in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his subjects for many years after his death were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may seem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in East-India jewels; and William of Malmſbury says, that some of their gems were deposited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Oðher, about the year 890, a full discovery of the coasts of Norway and Lapland, as far as Russia; and he tells the king, in his memorial printed by Hakluyt, "That he sailed along the Norway coast, so far North as commonly the whale-hunters usually travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and useful allies in the two Scots kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, against the Danes. He is said to have fought no less than fifty-six pitched battles with those barbarians. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up on public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly dignified with the epithet of the Great.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their barbarities and invasions. He died in the year 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince was such an encourager of commerce as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages, on his own account, to the Mediterranean, should be put upon a footing with a thane, or nobleman of the first rank. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws, that archbishops, bishops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. His dominions appear, however, to have been confined towards the North by the Danes, although his vassals still kept a footing in those counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edway, were weak and inglorious, being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of

of priests, particularly St Dunstan. His reign, however, was pacific and glorious, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the North of the Tine. He was succeeded, in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The English nation, at that time, by the help of priests, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became possessed of the finest part of the country, while their countrymen made sometimes dreadful descents in the Western parts. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred was obliged to give way to a general massacre of them by the English, but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind however, were undoubtedly made in particular counties, but they served only to enrage the Danish king, Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two sons, out of England into Normandy, a province of France, facing the South-East coast of England, at that time governed by its own princes, stiled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great, but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged Edmund Ironside, Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his son Harold Harefoot did nothing memorable, and his successor, Hardicanute, was so degenerate a prince that the Danish royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confessor, mounted it, though Edgar Etheling, by being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Edward the Confessor was a soft, good-natured prince, a great benefactor to the church, and excessively fond of the Normans, with whom he had resided. He was governed by his minister, earl Godwin, and his sons, the eldest of whom was Harold. He durst not resent, though he felt, their ignominious treatment; and perceiving his kinsman Edgar Etheling to be of a soft disposition, neither he nor the English paid much regard to Etheling's hereditary right; so that the Confessor, as is said, devised the succession of his crown upon his death to William duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain, that upon the death of the Confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Godwin earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a bastard, was then in the unrivalled possession of that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and by way of anticipation, he parcelled out the territory of England to each in proportion to the number of the men he brought into the field, making it thereby their interest to assist him effectually. By these means he collected 40,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarrassed with fresh invasions from the Danes, William landed in England without opposition. Harold returning from the North, encountered William at Hastings, in Sussex, with a superior army, but Harold being killed, the

the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066; and thus ended the Saxon monarchy in England, which had continued for more than 600 years.

We cannot find any great improvements, either in arts or arms, which the Saxons had made in England since the first invasion of the Danes. Those barbarians seem to have carried off with them almost all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons, for we perceive that Alfred the Great left no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100 l. each. The return of the Danes to England, and the victories which had been gained over them, had undoubtedly brought back great part of the money and bullion they had carried off; for we are told that Harold, in his last victory over the Danes, regained as much treasure as twelve lusty men could carry off. We have, indeed, very particular accounts of the value of provisions and manufactures in those days; a palfrey cost 10 s. and acre of land (according to Bishop Fleetwood, in his *Chronicon Pre-tiosum*) 1 s. and a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100 s. but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which those shillings bore to the present standard of money, though many ingenious treatises have been written on that head. A sheep was estimated at 1 s. an ox was computed at 6 s. a cow at 4 s. a man at 3 l. The board-wages of a child, the first year, was 8 s. The tenants of Shireburne were obliged, at their choice, to pay either 6 d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much used. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceased. Entails were sometimes practised in those times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons we can say little, but that they were in general a rude, uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Even so low as the reign of Canute, they sold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct. Even the Norman historians, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, speak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invasion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conquest put the people in a situation of receiving slowly from abroad the rudiments of science and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated state might be owing to the clergy, who always discouraged manufactures.

We are, however, to distinguish between the secular clergy and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magistrates. The latter depended upon the see of Rome, and directed the consciences of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often a bloody set. A great deal of the Saxon barbarism was likewise owing to their continual intercourse with the continent: and the Danish invasions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidst all those defects, public and personal liberty were well understood and guarded by the Saxon institutions; and we owe to them, at this day, the most valuable privileges of English subjects.

The loss which both sides suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors say, that Harold was so impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of numbers was on the side of the Norman; and, indeed the death of Harold seems to have decided the day; and William, with very little further difficulty, took possession of the throne, and partly new-modelled the whole constitution of England in the manner we have already described, by converting all the lands into knight's fees †, which are said to have amounted to 62,000, which were held of the Norman, and other great persons who had assisted him in his conquest, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave, for instance, to one of his barons, the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered, by his grant, almost independent of the crown: and here, according to some historians, we have the rise of the feudal law in England. William found it no easy matter to keep possession of the crown. Edgar Etheling, and his sister, the true Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms and formed conspiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties; especially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Etheling's sister; but not without exercising horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons, whom he obliged to put out their candles and fires every evening at eight o'clock, upon the ringing of a bell, called the *curfew*. He introduced Norman laws and language. He built the stone squire tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; and bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants; in short, he attempted every thing possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution.

He caused a general survey of all the lands of England to be made, or rather to be completed, (for it was begun in Edward the Confessor's time,) and an account to be taken of the villains, slaves, and live-stock upon each estate; all which were recorded in a book called *Doomsday-book*, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repose of this fortunate and victorious king was disturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now assumed the government as sovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the rise of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable achievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern history. William seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigour, and, with incredible celerity, transporting a brave English army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, the 61st of his age, and 21st of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

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† Four hides of land made one knight's fee: a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's-fee: and when *Doomsday-book* was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

The above are the most material transactions of William's reign ; and it may be further observed, that by the Norman conquest, England not only lost the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but also her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where being kindly received by king Malcolm, they established themselves ; and what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or English, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

The succession of the crown of England was disputed between the conqueror's sons Robert and William, (commonly called Rufus) and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have, therefore, been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewise hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and consequently was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellious people. About this time the crusades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Etheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter. He was accidentally shot through the heart by one Tyrrel, anno 1100, as he was hunting in New-Forest, from whence his father had banished the husbandman and legal possessor. He is chiefly accused of rapaciousness and oppression ; but the circumstances of his reign had great demands for money, which he had no other means of raising but from a luxurious, overgrown clergy, who had engrossed all the riches of the kingdom.

This prince built Westminster-hall as it now stands, and added several works to the Tower, which he surrounded with a wall and ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the sea, which overflowed great part of earl Goodwin's estate in Kent, and formed those shallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin-sands.

He was succeeded by his brother, Henry I. surnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be said to have purchased the throne, first by his brother's treasures, which he seized at Winchester; and, secondly, by a charter, in which he restored his subjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings: thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Etheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign in a great measure restored the clergy to their influence in the state, and they formed as it were a separate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulsions in England. Henry, partly by force, and partly by stratagem, made himself master of his brother Robert's person, and duchy of Normandy; and, with a most ungenerous meanness detained him a prisoner for 28 years, till the time of his death; and in the mean while Henry quieted his conscience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but successful war with France; and before his death he settled the succession upon his daughter, the empress Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and

her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit, in the 78th year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithstanding the late settlement of succession, the crown of England was claimed, and seized by Stephen, earl of Blois, the son of Adela, fourth daughter to William the conqueror. Matilda and her son were then abroad; and Stephen was assisted in his usurpation by his brother the bishop of Winchester, and the other great prelates, that he might hold his crown dependant as it were upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland, and a worthy subject in her natural brother, Robert, earl of Gloucester, who headed her party before her son grew up. A long and bloody war ensued, the clergy having absolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of succession; but at length the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken prisoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, she impotently upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. Being now masters of the soil of England, they forgot the principles of their Normannic constitution, because it rendered them dependent upon the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his accession; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the Earl of Gloucester, who had been taken prisoner likewise, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had, in fact, excluded him from the government, by building 1100 castles (though they owed all their rights to the king) where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal subjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough advised to attempt to force them into a compliance with his will, by declaring his son Eustace heir-apparent to the kingdom; and exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was son to the empress: and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This measure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehensive of a second conquest; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay-aristocracy, proposed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time lost his son Eustace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact invested with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his successor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the English, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars, with raptures of joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne without a rival in 1154.

Henry

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greatest prince of his time. It is true, he owed his crown to the arms and valour of his grand uncle, David, king of Scotland, and the virtues and wisdom of the Earl of Gloucester; but Henry, as he grew up, discovered amazing abilities of government, having performed, in the sixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the most experienced warriors. At his accession to the throne, he found the condition of the English boroughs greatly bettered by the privileges granted them in the struggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to such a height, that if a bondman or servant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by such residence made free. He erected Willingford, Winchester, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the services the inhabitants had done to his mother and himself; by discharging them from every burden, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of such town; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vast accession of power to the crown, because the crown alone could support the boroughs against their feudal tyrants, and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very scrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he resumed the excessive grants of crown lands by Stephen, on pretence of his being an usurper. He demolished the rebellious castles that had been built; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their usurpations not to be shaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous disorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay-courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and disorders, occasioned by those exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not attested by the most unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the English church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his offices, and still more so by his popularity, arising from a pretended sanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal, cool and politic. The king assembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is still famous for the constitutions there enacted; which, in fact, abolished the authority of the Romish see over the English clergy. Becket finding it in vain to resist the stream, signed those constitutions, till they could be ratified by the pope; who, as he foresaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the most determined spirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the see of Rome was at the same time in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king espoused his quarrel. The effect was, that all the English clergy who were on the king's side were excommunicated, and the subjects absolved from their allegiance. This disconcerted Henry so much, that he submitted to treat, and even to be insulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the streets of London in 1170. His return swelled his pride, and increased his insolence, till both became insupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the first subject of his own dominions,

minions, he was heard to say, in the anguish of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest?" These words reached the ears of four knights, Hugh Norvil, William Tracy, Hugh Brito, and Richard Fitzwife; and without acquainting Henry of their intentions, they went over to England, where they beat out Becker's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury. Henry was in no condition to second the blind obedience of his knights; and the public resentment rose so high, on the supposition that he was privy to the murder, that he submitted to be scourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in consequence of his well-known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually resumed their most valuable possessions in the North of England; this occasioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken prisoner, and forced to pay for his ransom 100,000*l.* As the money and coins of Scotland were at that time of the same intrinsic value with those of England, and as one half of the ransom was paid in ready money, and the other at a time appointed, it has been observed, by bishop Nicholson, and other very accurate authors, that, considering the vast difficulties which England, in the next reign, had to pay the ransom of king Richard, Scotland must have then possessed more ready money than England, a fact, which though undoubted, is not easily accounted for upon any historical system hitherto formed.

Henry likewise distinguished his reign by the conquest of Ireland, and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, but the heiress of Guienne and Poitou, he became almost as powerful as the French king himself in his own dominions, and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his old age, however, he was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleasure, and embarrassed himself in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond, which were resented by his queen Eleanor, by her seducing her sons, Henry, (whom his father had unadvisably caused to be crowned in his own life-time) Richard, and John, into repeated rebellions, which at last broke the old man's spirit, and he died obscurely at Chinou, in France, in the year 1189, and 58th of his age. The sum he left in ready money, at his death, has, perhaps, been exaggerated, but the most moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000*l.* of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were established all over England, by which the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Those corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, especially those of silk, seem still to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the silk coronation robes, made use of by young Henry and his queen, cost 87*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.* in the sheriff of London's account, printed by Mr Madox; a vast sum in those days. Henry introduced the use of glass in windows into England, and stone arches in building. Malmesbury, and other historians who lived under him, are remarkable for their Latin stile, which in some places is both pure and elegant.

Henry so far abolished the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting

seizing ships, which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal were alive in the ship, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners. This prince was also the first who levied a tax on the moveable or personal estates of his subjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy wars made them submit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this taxation became, in following reigns, the usual method of supplying the necessities of the crown. Since we are here collecting some detached instances, which show the genius of these ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger, archbishop of York, and Richard, archbishop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when ecclesiasticks could proceed to such extremities. The Pope's legate having summoned an assembly of the clergy at London; and as both the archbishops pretended to sit on his right hand, this question of precedence begot a controversy between them. The monks and retainers of archbishop Richard fell upon Roger in the presence of the cardinal and of the synod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and so bruised him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty saved from their violence.

Richard I. surnamed Cœur de Lion, was the third, but eldest surviving son of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they persuaded him to make a most magnificent ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon, and performed actions of valour that give countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After several glorious, but fruitless campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin, emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England he was treacherously surprized by the duke of Austria, who, in 1193, sent him prisoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the sordid emperor at 150,000 marks, about 300,000*l.* of our present money. According to contemporary authors, the raising of this ransom proved to be a matter of so much difficulty, that all the church plate was melted down, and a tax was laid on all persons, both ecclesiastical and secular, of one fourth part of their income for one year; and twenty shillings on every knight's-fee; also one year's wool borrowed of the Cistercians, besides money raised upon the clergy of the king's French dominions; and 2000 marks, which were furnished by William, king of Scotland, in gratitude for Richard's generous behaviour to him before his departure. Though all those sums are well authenticated, yet it is not easy to reconcile them with certain other money transactions of this reign, but by supposing that Richard carried off with him, and expended abroad, all the visible specie in the kingdom; and that the people had reserved vast hoards, which they afterwards produced, when commerce took a brisker turn.

Upon Richard's return from his captivity, he held a parliament at Nottingham; whither William king of Scotland came, and demanded the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancaster, as his predecessors had enjoyed the same. Richard put him off for the present with fair words, yet by advice of his council he granted William, by charter, the following honours and benefits for him and his successors, *viz.* "That whenever
a king

a king of Scotland was to be summoned to the court of England, to do homage for the lands he held in England, he should be, at the river Tweed, received by the bishop of Durham, and the Sheriff of Northumberland, and they should conduct him to the river Tees, where the archbishop and sheriff of York should receive him; and so in like sort the bishop, and sheriffs of the other shires, till he arrived at court. On his journey he had 100 shillings (15*l.* of our money) per day, allowed him for charges. At court thirty shillings per day; twelve wafers, and twelve simnels of the king's (two sorts of fine bread in use then) four quarts of the king's best wine; six quarts of ordinary wine; two pound weight of pepper; and four pound weight of cinnamon; four wax lights; forty great long perches of the king's best candles; and twenty-four of the ordinary ones. And on his return he was to be conducted as before, with the same allowances."

Whilst the Scottish kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their interest, once generally in every king's reign, to perform the said homage; but when they were deprived of their said lands, they paid no more homage.

Richard, upon his return, found his dominions in great disorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom he, however, pardoned; and by the invasions of the French, whom he repelled, but was slain in besieging the castle of Chalons, in the year 1199, the 42d of his age, and 10th of his reign. Some woollen broad-cloths appear to have been made in England at this time. And to those who would mark the progress of the English constitution, it may be proper to observe, that in this reign we meet with the first instance of the people's struggling for privileges, as a distinct body from the barons and clergy. This was an insurrection of the Londoners, headed by one William Fitzosborn to oppose an injudicious and oppressive tax, the burden of which was to fall entirely on the poor. Fitzosborn is represented as a man brave and enterprising, but being hard pressed, he took refuge in a church, from whence he was dragged to the gallows, and hung in chains, with nine of his accomplices. These persons may be considered as the first victims to that untameable spirit, which ever since has actuated the Commons of England in support of their privileges, and prompted them to the rights of humanity.

The reign of his brother John, who succeeded him, is infamous in the English history. He is said to have put to death Arthur, the eldest son of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Constance, complained to Philip, the king of France, who, upon John's non-appearance at his court, as a vassal, deprived him of Normandy. John, notwithstanding his wars with the French, Scotch, and Irish, gave many proofs of personal valour, but became at last so apprehensive of a French invasion, that he rendered himself a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons resented his meanness by taking arms, but he repeated his shameful submissions to the pope, and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to sign
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the great deed, so well known by the name of Magna Charta. Tho' this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of those immunities which the barons and their followers had possessed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charter of Henry I. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better secured; this charter, by various subsequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burghesses. John had scarce signed it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope, and the barons being apprehensive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance, but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refused to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 49th year of his reign, just as he had a glimpse of resuming his authority. Without disputing what historians have said of his arbitrary, inconstant, and cruel disposition, it is evident, from the same relations, that he had great provocations from the clergy and the barons, who in their turns attempted to annihilate the regal prerogative. It is undeniable, at the same time, that under John the Commons of England laid the foundation of all the wealth and privileges they now enjoy; and the commerce of England received a most surprising increase. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he established; and endowed all over his kingdom. The city of London owes many of her privileges to him; the office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuse a mayor out of their own body, annually; and to elect their sheriffs and common-council annually, as at present; and it was under him that the stone bridge, as it stood some years ago, was erected across the Thames at London.

England was in a deplorable situation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's son, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was chosen his guardian; and the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated, and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died in 1219, and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The French king all this time kept possession of Normandy; but at home the pope was now become king of England, and sent no fewer than 300 of his rapacious clergy at one time to take possession of its best benefices; and to load the people with taxes. This evil was increased, by Henry marrying the daughter of the king of Provence, a needy prince, whose poor relations engrossed the best estates and places in the kingdom. The king was of a soft, pliable disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. An association of the barons was formed against him and his government, and a civil war breaking out, Henry seemed to be abandoned by all but his Gascons, and foreign mercenaries. His profusion brought him into inexpressible difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort be-

ing chosen general of the association, the king and his two sons were defeated and taken prisoners, at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort and the earl of Gloucester, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldest son, obtained his liberty, and assembling as many as he could of his father's subjects, who was jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Ever-sham, and killed Montfort. The representatives of the Commons of England, both knights and burgesses, formed now part of the English legislature, in a separate house, and this gave the first blow to feudal tenures in England, but historians are not agreed in what manner the Commons, before this time, formed any part of the English parliament, or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, the 64th year of his age, and 56th of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious. During his reign, the principal customs arose from the importation of French and Rhenish wines, the English being as yet strangers to those of Spain, Portugal and Italy. Interest had in that age mounted to an enormous height, as might be expected from the barbarism of the times, and mens ignorance of commerce, which was still very low, though it seems rather to have increased since the conquest. There are instances of 50l. per cent. paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithstanding the grievous oppressions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255, Henry made a fresh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them, if they refused compliance. They now lost all patience, and desired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom. But the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppression you complain of? I am myself a begar; I am despoiled; I am stripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had said 300,000, I should not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my son, prince Edward, 15,000 marks a-year; I have not a farthing; and I must have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew of Bristol: and, on his refusal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he should consent. The Jew lost seven teeth; and then paid the sum required of him.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite*, to his coronation dinner, which consisted (that the reader may have some idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 sheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats. (See Rymer's *Fœdera*.)

Edward was a brave and a politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, interests, and constitution of his kingdom, his regulations and reformations of his laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He passed the famous mortmain act, whereby all persons "were restrained from giving, by will or otherwise, their estates to those so called, religious purposes, and the societies that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the cinque-ports, which, though now very inconsiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he

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went beyond sea, with fifty-seven ships, each having twenty armed soldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own costs for the space of fifteen days. He reduced the Welsh to pay him tribute, and annexed its principality to his crown, and was the first who gave the title of Prince of Wales to his eldest son. Though he encouraged foreigners to trade with England, yet the aggregate body of every particular nation residing here became answerable for the misdemeanors of every individual person of their number. He regulated the forms of parliament, and their manner of giving aids towards the nation's defence, as they now stand, with very little variation. Perceiving that the indolence of his subjects rendered them a prey to the Jews, who were the great usurers and money-dealers of the times, he expelled them out of England, and seized all their immovable estates. He abolished, in an unjustifiable manner, the independency of Scotland; but, on the other hand, it must be acknowledged that he held the balance of power in Europe, and employed the vast sums he raised from his subjects, for the aggrandizement of his crown and people. He had frequent wars abroad, especially with France, in which he was not very successful, and would willingly have abridged the power of the barons, and great nobility, but found them too strong.

His vast connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his subjects, particularly by the introduction of reading glasses and spectacles, though they are said to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the same time, and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an assay, and mark of the goldsmith's company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himself and the English, by draining them of their wealth, and it is thought that he too much neglected the woolen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland, and he died in 1307, the 69th year of his age, and 35th of his reign, while he was upon a fresh expedition to exterminate that people.

His son and successor Edward II. shewed early dispositions for encouraging favourites, but Gaveston, his chief minion, being banished by his father Edward, he mounted the throne, with vast advantages, both political and personal, all which he soon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveston, and loaded him with honours, and married Isabella, daughter to the French king, who restored to him part of the territories, which Edward I. had lost in France. The knights templars were suppressed in his reign, and the barons obliged him once more to banish his favourite, and to confirm the great charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling, near to which, Bannockburn, Edward in person received the greatest defeat that England ever suffered, in 1314. Gaveston being beheaded by the barons, Edward fixed upon young Hugh Spencer for his favourite, but he was banished together with his father, an aged nobleman of great honour and courage. His queen, a furious ambitious woman, persuaded her husband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's standard, and af-

ter defeating them, restored him to the exercise of all his prerogatives. A cruel use was made of those successes, and many noble patriots, with their estates, fell victims to the queen's revenge, but at last she became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her prisoner, and had been one of the most active of the anti-royalist lords. A breach between her and the Spencers soon followed, and going over to France with her lover, she found means to form such a party in England, that returning with some French troops, she put the eldest Spencer to an ignominious death, made her husband prisoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his son Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt, and he was most barbarously murdered in Berkeley-castle, by ruffians, supposed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

The fate of Edward II. was in some measure as unjust as it was cruel. His chief misfortune lay in not being a match for Robert Bruce, king of Scotland, the greatest military and political genius of his age, by which the English lost that kingdom. It cannot, at the same time, be denied, that he was too much engrossed by favourites, who led him into sanguinary measures. In other respects he was a far better friend than his father had been to public liberty. He even voluntarily limited his own prerogative, in a parliament held at London in 1324, and he secured the tenants of great barons from being oppressed by their lords. None of his predecessors equalled him in his encouragement of commerce, and he protected his trading subjects with great spirit against the Hanseatic league, and the neighbouring powers. Upon an average, the difference of living then and now seems to be nearly as five or six is to one, always remembering that their money contained thrice as much silver as our money or coin of the same denomination does. Thus, for example, if a goose then cost 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$, that is 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$ of our money, or according to the proportion of six to one, it would now cost 3s. 9d.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer, and they endeavoured to keep possession of their power, by executing many popular measures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland. Edward, young as he was, was soon sensible of their designs: He surprised them in person at the head of a few chosen friends in the castle of Nottingham. Mortimer was ignominiously put to a public death, and the queen herself was shut up in confinement. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David, king of Scotland, who had married his sister, and who was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary king of Scotland, and general. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without issue) who had succeeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended cut off all female succession to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir-male by succession, but he was opposed by Edward, as being the son of Isabella, who was sister to the three last mentioned kings of France, and first in the female succession. The former was preferred, but the case being doubtful, Edward pursued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occasion, the vast difference between the feudal constitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no subordination. They and their men were equally undisciplined, and disobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The English freemen, on the other hand, having now vast property to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a feudal law, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by providing themselves with proper armour, and submitting to military exercises, and proper subordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued scene of success and victory. At Cressley, in 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but sixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four) though the English did not exceed 30,000. The loss of the French far exceeded the number of the English army, whose loss consisted of no more than three knights, and one esquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poitiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with superior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite son Philip taken prisoner. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle was double that of all the English army, but the modesty and politeness with which the prince treated his royal prisoners, formed the brightest wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, she had the good fortune to take prisoner David, king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England, about six weeks after the battle of Cressley was fought. Thus Edward, on his return, had the glory to see two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ransomed, but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Breigni, into which Edward III. is said to have been frightened by a dreadful storm, his fortunes declined. He had resigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he sunk in the esteem of his subjects at home, on account of his attachment to his mistress, one Alice Piers. The prince of Wales, commonly called the black prince, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he re-instated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was seized with a consumptive disorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long survive him, for he died dispirited, and obscure, at Shene, in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age and 51st of his reign.

No prince ever understood the balance and interests of Europe better than Edward did. Having set his heart on the conquest of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands for protection, and security to their liberties and properties, but he thereby exhausted his regal dominions; neither was his successor, when he mounted the throne, so powerful a prince as he was, in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of establishing the woollen

woollen manufacture among the English, who, till his time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign, seems to have been much the same as in the late reign, and few of the English ships, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithstanding the vast increase of property in England, villenage still continued in the royal, episcopal, and baronial manors. Historians are not agreed, whether Edward made use of artillery, in his first invasion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent castle of Windsor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may serve as a specimen of the condition of the people in that age. Instead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he assailed every county in England to send him so many masons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enlisted only for a short time; they lived idle all the rest of the year, and commonly all the rest of their lives; one successful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ransom of prisoners, was supposed to be a small fortune to a man: which was a great allurements to enter into the service. The wages of a master carpenter was limited through the whole year to three-pence a-day, a common carpenter to two-pence, money of that age. John Wickliffe, a secular priest, educated at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to spread the doctrines of reformation by his discourses, sermons, and writings; and he made many disciples of all ranks and stations. He seems to have been a man of parts and learning; and has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question those doctrines which had universally passed for certain and undisputed, during so many ages.

The doctrines of Wickliffe, being derived from his search into the scriptures, and into ecclesiastical antiquity, were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the sixteenth century. But though the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reserved for a more free and inquiring period, that gave the finishing blow to Romish superstition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. His disciples were distinguished by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. was no more than eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The English arms were then unsuccessful, both in France and Scotland. The doctrines of Wickliffe had taken root under John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in so flourishing a state, that corn, and other victuals, were suffered to be transported, and the English had fallen upon a way of manufacturing for exportation; likewise their leather, horns, and other native commodities, and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they seem from records to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England, and so many men were employed in unsuccessful wars, that the Commons of England,

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like powder receiving a spark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a priest, Wat Tyler, and others, the scum of the people. Their professed principles were those of leveling, but it soon appeared, that their real intention was to have murdered the king, and seized upon the government.

Richard was not then above sixteen, but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the storm of the insurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the arch-traitor, to death, in the midst of his rabble. This, with the seasonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the insurrection for that time, but it broke out with the most bloody effects in other parts of England; and though it was suppressed by making many examples of severity and justice among the insurgents, yet the common people never after that lost sight of their own importance, till by degrees they obtained those privileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the suppression of those insurgents, have established the tranquillity of his dominions on a sure foundation, but he delivered himself up to worthless favourites, particularly Sir Michael de la Pole, whom he created lord chancellor, judge Tresilian, and above all, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people, and Richard stooped to the most ignoble measures to save them; but he found that it was not in his power. They were attainted and condemned to suffer as traitors; but Pole, and the duke of Ireland escaped abroad, where they died in obscurity. Richard associated to himself a new set of favourites. His people, and great lords, again took arms, and being headed by the duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into their terms; but being insincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more despotic than any king of England ever had been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk, and Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party was formed in England, who offered the duke of Lancaster the crown. He landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them English. Richard hurried back to England where his troops refusing to fight, he was made prisoner, with no more than twenty attendants, and being carried to London, he was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of misconduct, and soon after he was starved to death in prison, in the year 1399, the 34th of his age, and the 23d of his reign.

Though the nobility of England were possessed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the Commons. They had the courage to remonstrate boldly in parliament against the usury, which was but too much practised in England, and other abuses of both clergy and laity, and the destruction of the feudal powers soon followed.

Henry

Henry the IV. *, son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. being settled in the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward the III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect of his title would render him dependent upon them. At first some conspiracies were formed against him among his great men, but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown powers. This was understood by the Percy family, the greatest in the North of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of some Scots prisoners, whom they had taken in battle, and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland; and his son, the famous Henry Percy, surnamed the Hotspur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune Henry suppressed the insurrections of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and, by his prudent concessions to his parliament, to the Commons particularly, he at last conquered all opposition, while, to salve the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body; lawfully begotten, thereby shutting out all female succession. The young Duke of Rothsay, heir to the crown of Scotland, (after James I. of that kingdom,) falling a prisoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of infinite service to his government; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the satisfaction to see his son and successor, the prince of Wales, disengage himself from many youthful follies, which had, till then, disgraced his conduct.

The English marine was now so greatly increased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burden, carrying on an immense trade all over Europe, but with the Hanse towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. was the first prince who gave the different orders in parliament, especially that of the Commons, their due weight. It is, however, a little surprising, that learning was at this time at a much lower pass in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Bishops, when testifying synodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz: "As I cannot read myself, N. N. hath subscribed for me; or, as my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request I have subscribed."

The balance of trade with foreign parts was against England, at the accession of Henry V. in 1413, so greatly had luxury increased. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were excessively numerous;

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaster stepped forth, and having crossed himself on his forehead, and on his breast, and called upon the name of Christ, he pronounced these words, which we shall give in the original language; because of their singularity:

In the name of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, I Henry of Lancaster, challenge this reume of Ynglande, and the crown, with all the membres, and the appurtenances; als I that am descendit by right line of the blode (meaning a claim in right of his mother) coming fro the gude king Henry the 3rd, and throge that right that God of his grace hath sent me, with help of kyn, and of my frendes, to recover it; the which reume was in poynt to be ondone by defaut of governunce, and ondoing of the gude lawes:

ous, and had chosen Sir John Oldcastle for their head, but Henry dispersed them, and executed their leader. Henry next turned his eyes towards France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been ravaged from England in the preceding reigns; also the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ransom since the reign of Edward the III. and availing himself of the distracted state of that kingdom, he invaded it, where he first took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled those of Cressley and Poitiers in glory to the English, but exceeded them in its consequences, on account of the vast number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made such alliances, and divided the French among themselves so effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whose husband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princess Catharine, to disinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France, during her husband's life, and him and his issue successors to the French monarchy, which must at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (tho' their king still continued Henry's captive) furnished the dauphin with vast supplies, and preserved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proscribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might crush the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died in 1422, the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

Henry V's vast successes in France revived the trade of England, and at the same time increased and established the privileges and liberties of the English commonalty. As he died when he was only 34 years of age, it is hard to say, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then greatly distracted by the divisions among its princes: but whether this would have been of service or prejudice to the growing liberties of his English subjects we cannot determine.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they only amounted to 55,714*l.* a-year, which is nearly the same with the revenues in Henry III's time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the course of 200 years. The ordinary expences of the government amounted to 52,507*l.* so that the king had had of surplus only 3207*l.* for the support of his household, for his wardrobe, for the expence of embassies, and other articles. This sum was nowise sufficient even in time of peace; and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miserable shifts: he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels, and sometimes the crown itself; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to stop in the midst of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy.

It required a prince equally able as Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaster house to the throne of England. Henry VI. surnamed of Windsor, was no more than nine months old, when,

in consequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France, as well as of England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, both of them princes of great accomplishments, virtues and courage, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor, Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conquest of France. The siege was raised by the valour and good conduct of the maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history, being born of the lowest extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and sometimes a helper in stables at public inns. She must, notwithstanding, have possessed an amazing fund of sagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of glorious actions, and placing the crown upon her sov'reign's head, she was accidentally taken prisoner by the English, who burnt her alive for a witch and a heretic.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the English, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the English interest in France, and the loss of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithstanding the amazing courage of Talbot, the first earl of Shrewsbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its disunion at home. The duke of Gloucester lost his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high spirit, but an implacable disposition; while the cardinal of Winchester, who was the richest subject in England, if not in Europe, presided at the head of the treasury, and by his avarice ruined the interest of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the Cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord-lieutenant of Ireland, was the most powerful subject in England. He was descended by the mother's side from Lionel, an elder son of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was descended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngest son, and he affected to keep up the distinction of a white rose, that of the house of Lancaster being red. It is certain he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he lost no opportunity of forming a party to assert his right, but acted at first with the most profound dissimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a profest enemy to the duke of York, but being impeached in parliament, he was banished for five years, and had his head struck off on board a ship by a common sailor. This was followed by an insurrection of 20,000 Kentishmen, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who sent to the court a list of grievances, but was suppressed by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen seemed to be perfectly secure against the duke of York. The inglorious management of the English affairs in France befriended him, and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a strong party of the nobility his friends, but being considered as the fomentor of Cade's rebellion, he profest the most profound reverence to Henry.

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The persons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Salisbury, and his son the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greatest land estate of any subject in England, and his vast abilities, joined to some virtue, rendered him equally popular. Both father and son were secretly on the side of York; and during a fit of illness of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both sides now prepared for arms; and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity, assembling an army, the royalists were defeated in the first battle of St Alban's, and the king himself was taken prisoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen resumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakness became every day more visible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the mask, and in 1459, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the King-maker. A parliament on this being assembled, it was enacted, that Henry should possess the throne for life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromise. She retreated Northward, and the king being still a prisoner, she pleaded his cause so well, that assembling a fresh army, she fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and slain in 1460. He left behind him three sons, Edward, duke of York, afterwards Edward IV. George, duke of Clarence, and Richard, duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III.

It is pretty extraordinary, that though the duke of York and his party openly asserted his claim to the crown, they still professed allegiance to Henry; but the young duke of York prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the second battle of St Alban's, she delivered her husband; but the disorders committed by her Northern troops disgusted the Londoners so much, that she durst not enter London, where the duke of York was received amidst the acclamations of the people, and proclaimed king, anno 1471, under the name of Edward IV. while the queen and her husband were obliged to retreat Northward. She soon raised another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the most bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both sides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her husband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

It may be proper to observe, that this civil war was carried on with greater animosity than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood-thirsty as her opponents, and when prisoners of either side were made, their deaths, especially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the concessions she made to the Scots, soon raised a fresh army there, and in the North of England, but met with defeat

upon defeat, till at last her husband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried prisoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married Elisabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, though he had some time before sent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's sister in marriage, in which embassy he was successful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princess into England. When the secret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl, deeming himself affronted, returned to England, inflamed with rage and indignation; and from being Edward's best friend, became his most formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made prisoner, but escaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the restoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly escaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York, but being received into the capital, he resumed the exercise of royal authority, made king Henry once more his prisoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after, he defeated a fresh army of Lancastrians, and made queen Margaret prisoner, together with her son, prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Gloucester, murdered in cold blood, as he is said (but with no great shew of probability) to have done his father, Henry VI. then a prisoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471. Edward being now settled on the throne, was guilty of the utmost cruelty to all the Lancastrian party, whom he put to death whenever he could find them, so that they were threatened with utter extermination.

The great object of his vengeance was Henry, earl of Richmond. He was descended from John Beaufort, the eldest son of the earl of Somerset, who was the eldest son of John of Gaunt, by his last wife Catharine Swineford, but born in adultery, during her husband's lifetime. This disability, however, was afterwards removed, both by the pope and by the parliament, and the descendants of John of Gaunt, by that lady, as far as could be done, were declared legitimate. The last lord, John, duke of Somerset, left a daughter, Margaret, who was married to Edmond Tudor, earl of Richmond, and their son was Henry, earl of Richmond (afterwards Henry VII.) who, at that time, lived in France to secure himself from the cruelty of Edward. The reader may see, from the detail of this important genealogy, that the young earl of Richmond had not the smallest claim in blood (even supposing the illegitimacy of his ancestors had been removed) to the crown of England.

The kingdom of England was, in 1474, in a deplorable situation. The king was immersed in expensive and criminal luxuries, in which he was imitated by his great men, who, to support their extravagancies, became pensioners to the French king. The parliament seemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The best blood in England was shed upon scaffolds, and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealousy. Edward partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expence of his

his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel, and sometimes to treat, with France; but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the 23d year of his reign, and 42d of his age.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England increased during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation-act was thought of, by the English, as the only means to preserve to themselves the benefit of being the carriers of their own merchandize, but foreign influence prevented Henry's passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of printing, which was imported into England by William Caxton, and received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign, but learning in general was then in a poor state in England. The Lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and seems to have been the first English nobleman who cultivated what are now called the Belles Lettres. The books printed by Caxton, are mostly re-translations or compilations from the French, or Monkish Latin; but it must be acknowledged, at the same time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progress among the English, than it did in any other European nation,

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had exercised her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obscure relations. Her eldest son, Edward V. was about thirteen, and his uncle, the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to bastardize her issue, by act of parliament, under the scandalous pretext of a pre-contract between her father and another lady. The duke, at the same time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and, at last, accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners, having first put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether young Edward and his brother were murdered in the tower by his direction, is doubtful. The most probable opinion is, that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was afterwards well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the English were prepossessed so strongly against Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who still remained in France, carried on a secret correspondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends, and by offering to marry his eldest daughter he was encouraged to invade England, at the head of about 2000 foreign troops, but they were soon joined by 7000 English and Welsh. A battle between him and Richard who was at the head of 15,000 men, ensued at Bosworth field, in which Richard, after displaying most astonishing acts of personal valour, was killed, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under Lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

There can scarcely be a doubt, that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by historians. He was exemplary in his distributive justice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whose oppressions he abolished, and was a father to the common people. He founded the society of Heralds, an institution, which, in his time, was found necessary to prevent disputes among great families. During

During his reign, short as it was, we have repeated instances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures of all kinds, and for preventing their being imported into England, no fewer than 72 different kinds being prohibited importation by one act. He was the first English king who appointed a consul for the superintendency of English commerce abroad, one Strozzi being nominated for Pisa, with an income of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Englishmen imported to or exported from thence. We shall not enter into the subject of the concern he had in the supposed murder of his two nephews, but only observe, that the temporizing parliament, by bastardizing them, cut them off from the succession to the crown.

Though the same act of bastardy affected the daughters, as well as the sons of the late king, yet no disputes were raised upon the legitimacy of the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaster, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houses, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houses of York and Lancaster. Henry, however, rested his right upon conquest, and seemed to pay no regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the most sagacious monarch that ever had reigned in England; but, at the same time, the most jealous of his power; for he shut up the earl of Warwick, son to the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. a close prisoner in the Tower, though he was but a boy, and though nothing was alledged against him but his propinquity to the house of York. He was the first who instituted that guard called Yeomen, which still subsists; and, in imitation of his predecessor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges assumed by the barons, in abolishing liveries, and retainers, by which every malefactor could shelter himself from the law, by assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. Some rebellions happened in the beginning of his reign, but they were easily suppressed, as was an impostor, who pretended to be the imprisoned earl of Warwick. The despotic court of Star-chamber owed its original to Henry, but, at the same time, it must be acknowledged, that he passed many acts, especially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his subjects. They expressed their gratitude, by the great supplies and benevolences they afforded him, and, as a finishing stroke to the feudal tenures, an act passed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for their alienation.

This, if we regard its consequences, is perhaps the most important act that ever passed in an English parliament, though its tendency seems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increase of trade, and the discovery of America, had broken with irresistible force into England, and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the estates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges, and thus the baronial powers were soon extinguished in England.

Henry, after encountering and surmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was disturbed in the possession of his throne, by

by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, second son to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as such by the dutchess of Burgundy, Edward's sister. We shall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon, but it is certain that many of the English, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public satisfaction; and tho' James IV. of Scotland dismissed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldest daughter, yet by the kind manner in which he entertained and dismissed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, especially as he refused to deliver up his person, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impostor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. It is said, that Perkin made a confession of his impostures before his death, but if he did, it might have been extorted from him, either upon the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture. In 1499, Henry's eldest son, Arthur, prince of Wales, was married to the princess Catharine, of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying soon after, such was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, that he consented to her being married again to his second son, afterwards Henry VIII. on pretence that the first match had not been consummated. Soon after, Henry's eldest daughter, the princess Margaret, was sent with a most magnificent train to Scotland, where she was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th in his reign, was possessed of 1,800,000*l.* sterling, which is equivalent to five millions at present, so that he may be supposed to have been master of more ready money than all the kings in Europe besides possessed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked.

We have already mentioned the vast alteration which happened in the constitution of England, during Henry the VII.'s reign. His excessive love of money was the probable reason why he did not become master of the West-Indies, he having the first offer of the discovery from Columbus, whose proposals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he set out upon the discovery of a new world, in the year 1492, which he effected after a passage of thirty-three days, and took possession of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry, however, made amends by encouraging Cabot, who discovered the main-land of North-America, in 1498, and we may observe, to the praise of this king, that sometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants sums of money without interest, when he knew that their stock was not sufficient for those enterprizes which they had in view.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the accession of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy, and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exercise of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich,
without

without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe, but it is certain, that he neglected those advantages in commerce, with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining he could not stand in need of a supply, he did not improve Cabot's discoveries, and he suffered the East and West Indies to be engrossed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conquest of all France. These projects, and his establishing what is properly called a navy royal, for the permanent defence of the nation (a most excellent measure) led him into incredible expences. He was on all occasions the dupe of the emperor Maximilian, the poorest prince in Europe, and early in his reign he gave himself almost entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolsey. While involved in a war with France, his lieutenant, the earl of Surry, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland, who had invaded England, and he became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy, but soon resigned his pretensions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between those princes, was directed by Wolsey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the interest of Charles, but finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare himself for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expences, till at last he was forced to lay vast burdens upon his subjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes, and the Romish church. He wrote a book against Luther, about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his successors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have some scruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. On this occasion, however, he might be influenced by the charms of the famous Anne Bullen, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married before he had obtained the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this process ruined Wolsey, who died of heart-break, after being stript of his immense power and possessions; and had introduced into the king's favour Cranmer, who was afterwards archbishop of Canterbury.

A perplexing, though nice conjuncture of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at last to throw off all relation to or dependence upon the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation, in which, however, many of the Romish errors and superstitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty measure, had it not been for his despotic disposition, which broke out on every occasion. Upon a slight suspicion of his queen's inconstancy, and after a sham trial, he cut off her head, and put to death some of her nearest relations, and he was declared arbitrary by repeated acts of parliament, which assembled only as a board to execute his pleasures. The dissolution of the religious houses, and the immense wealth that came to Henry, by seizing all the ecclesiastical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full scope to his sanguinary disposition, so that the best

best and most innocent blood of England was daily shed on scaffolds, and few days passed that were not marked with some illustrious victim of his tyranny. Among others was the aged countess of Salisbury, descended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to the cardinal Pole, the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood-royal, for holding a correspondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but she died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, sister to the duke of Cleves. He disliked her so much, that he scarce bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he suffered her to reside in England, on a pension of 3000*l.* a-year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whose head he cut off for anti-nuptial incontinency. His last wife was queen Catharine Parr, in whose possession he died, though she also narrowly escaped being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on Protestants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death without a crime being proved against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered next day, had he not been saved by Henry's own death, in the year 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

The state of England during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the help of printing, too well known to be enlarged upon here. His attention to the naval security of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the despotic power he was possessed of, in many respects, for the glory and interest of his subjects. Without inquiring into his religious motives, it must be candidly confessed, that had the reformation gone through all the forms prescribed by the laws, and the courts of justice, it probably never could have taken place, or at least not for many years; and whatever Henry's personal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby rescuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the present greatness of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a pension to Erasmus; he brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houses began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a constant and generous friend to Cranmer: and though he was whimsical and extravagant to the last degree, in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the instruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in English. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after some disputes were over, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector and duke of Somerset, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the see of Rome. Much of the

popish leaven, however, still remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. The protector marched with an army into Scotland, to force that people to give their young queen Mary, only child of James V. in marriage to Edward, with a view to unite the two kingdoms, a measure which the late king had recommended with his dying breath to his executors. The protector defeated the Scots at Penkey, but the match never took place; and the factions now forming against the protector obliged him to return with his army to England. His own brother, who had married the queen dowager, was at the head of his enemies, and the dying, he made his addresses to the princess Elizabeth, afterwards queen. This gave a handle to the protector to bring his brother, who was lord admiral, to the block, where he lost his head.

The reader is to observe in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reign of Henry and Edward being deprived of the vast relief they had from abbeys and religious houses, and being ejected from their small corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often suppressed by the government; and several of these insurrections were crushed in this reign. A war, which was not very happily managed, broke out with Scotland; and the protector, who was, upon the whole, a weak, but conscientious man, was so intent upon religion, that he was first driven from the helm of state, and then lost his head upon a scaffold, by a faction formed equally of Papists and pretended Protestants. Dudley, who was created duke of Northumberland, then took the lead in the government, and drove Edward, who, though young, meant extremely well, and was a sincere Protestant, into many impolitic acts, so that, upon the whole, England never made a poorer figure than it did in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and other, some of them foreign, divines. In some cases, particularly with regard to the princess Mary, they lost sight of that moderation which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some cruel sanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame, and his charitable endowments, which still exist and flourish, shewed the goodness of his heart. He died of a deep consumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstitutional will, for he set aside his sister Mary from the succession which was claimed by lady Jane Gray, daughter to the duchess of Suffolk, youngest sister to Henry VIII. This lady, tho' she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognized the claim of the princess Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head, and that of her husband lord Guildford Dudley, son to the duke of Northumberland, who suffered in the same manner.

Mary being thus settled on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyat, and proceeded like a female fury to re-establish popery, which she did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from banishment, made him the principal instrument of her cruelties, and
lighted

lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illustrious confessors of the English reformed church, were consumed; not to mention a vast number of other sacrifices of both sexes, and all ranks, that suffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner, bishop of London, and Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, were, under Pole, the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had she lived, she would have endeavoured to exterminate all her Protestant subjects.

Mary was married to Philip II. king of Spain, who, like herself, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praise of her reign is, that, by the marriage-articles, provision was made for the independency of the English crown. By the assistance of troops, which she furnished to her husband, he gained the important battle of St Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the English in France. This loss, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's secret connections with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her persecuting flames, (says a contemporary writer of credit) were burnt to ashes, 5 bishops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 husbandmen, servants, and labourers; 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, springing out of the mother's womb from the stake as she burned, thrown again into the fire."

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Bullen, mounted the throne under the most discouraging circumstances, both at home and abroad. Popery was the established religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumstances attending her mother's marriage and death, was disputed by Mary Queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII's eldest daughter, and wife to the Dauphin of France; and the only ally she had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and soul of the popish cause, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age, at the time of her inauguration, but her sufferings under her bigotted sister, joined to the superiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy, and she soon conquered all difficulties.

In matters of religion she succeeded with surprising facility, for, in her first parliament, in 1559, the laws establishing popery were repealed, her supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity passed soon after. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, sent troops and money, which supported the Scots malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage, and her other misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where she had been often promised a safe and an honourable asylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profession of friendship, and that she detained the unhappy prisoner eighteen years in England, then brought her to a sham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the

crown,

crown, and, without the least proof of guilt, cut off her head; an action which must have tarnished all the glories of her reign, had it been a thousand times more splendid than it was.

As to Elizabeth's affairs with Spain, which formed, in fact, the main business of her government, they exhibit scenes of wonderful events, partly arising from her own wise conduct, partly from the sagacity of her statesmen, and partly from the intrepidity of her forces by sea and land.

The same Philip who had been the husband of her late sister, upon Elizabeth's accession to the throne, offered to marry her, but she dexterously avoided his addresses; and by a train of skilful negotiations between her court and that of France, she kept the balance of Europe so undetermined, that she had leisure to unite her people at home, and to establish an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She sometimes supported the Protestants of France; and the some times gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon the strongest assurances that one or other of them should be her husband; by which she kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the same time, in so good humour with her government, that it shewed no resentment when she cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be imposed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amused and baffled him in every quarter, it is well known that he made use of the immense sums which he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the most formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the best captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. No reader can be so uninformed as to be ignorant of the consequences, that the largeness of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they engaged; that the lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chased the Spanish fleet for several days, and that the seas and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, and that few of the Spanish ships recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Forbisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable armada, in which the Spaniards are said to have lost eighty-one ships of war, large and small, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for some time supported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had sent them her favourite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroy and general in the low countries. Though Leicester behaved ill, yet her measures were so wise, that the Dutch established their independency upon Spain, and then she sent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the East and West Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treasures, taken from the Spaniards, into England.

After the death of the earl of Leicester, the young earl of Essex became Elizabeth's chief favourite, and commanded the land forces in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, in which they took and plundered the city of Cadiz in Spain, destroyed the ships in the harbour,

harbour, and did other damage to the Spaniards, to the amount of twenty millions of ducats.

Elizabeth in her old age grew distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, she seized him by her capriciousness into the madness of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that she had been betrayed into this sanguinary measure, which occasioned a sinking of her spirits, that brought her to her grave in 1603, the 70th year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previously named her kinsman James VI. king of Scotland, and son to Mary, for her successor.

The above form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign, and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She supported the protestants in Germany against the house of Austria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She crushed the papists in her own dominions for the same reason, and made a further reformation in the church of England, in which state it has remained ever since. In 1600 the English East-India company received its first formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portuguese (in consequence of their having first discovered the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope) who at that time were subjects to Spain; and factories were established in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

Before queen Elizabeth's reign, the kings of England had usually recourse to the city of Antwerp, for voluntary loans; and their credit was so low, that, besides the exorbitant interest of ten or twelve per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the security. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583; and that commerce was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the grand Signior had always conceived England to be a dependent province of France. About 1590 there were in London four persons only rated in the subsidy book so high as 400*l*. In 1567 there were found on inquiry to be 4851 strangers of all nations in London, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the successes of her reign have disguised it, for she was far from being a friend to personal liberty, and she was guilty of many stretches of power against the most sacred rights of Englishmen. But we must observe, that through the practices of the Spaniards with the Irish Roman catholics, she found great difficulty to keep that island in subjection, and at the time of her death her government there had gone into great disorder.

We can scarce require a stronger proof that the English began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy testified by all ranks at the accession of her successor, notwithstanding the long inveterate animosities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being destitute of natural abilities for government, but he had received wrong impressions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the English throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconstitutional powers that had been exercised by Elizabeth, and the house of Tudor; and while he was boasting of an almost unlimited prerogative, there was not so much as a single
regiment

regiment in England to maintain his extensive claims; a sufficient proof that he sincerely believed his pretensions to be well grounded. He made no allowance for the glories of Elizabeth; which, as we have observed, disguised her most arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal sentiments which the improvement of knowledge and learning had then diffused through England. It is needless, perhaps, to point out the vast increase of property through trade and navigation, which enabled the English at the same time to defend their liberties. James's first attempt of great consequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the aversion of the English to that measure, he shewed no violent resentment at the disappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increased by the discovery and defeat of the gun-powder treason*.

We have taken notice, in several preceding parts of this work, of the vast obligations which commerce and colonization owed to this prince: and, in fact, he laid the foundations of all the advantages which the English have reaped from either. That his pedantry was ridiculous cannot be denied; and it is certain that he had no just ideas of the English constitution and liberties. This led him into many absurd disputes with his parliament, and has thrown a most disagreeable shade upon his memory. Without inquiring from what motive his love of peace proceeded, we may venture to affirm, that it was productive of many blessings to England; and though his perpetual

* This was a scheme of the Roman catholics to cut off, at one blow, the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament, when it was also expected that the queen, and prince of Wales, would be present. The manner of enlisting any new conspirator was by oath, and administering the sacrament; and this dreadful secret, after being religiously kept near eighteen months, was happily discovered in the following manner: About ten days before the long wished for meeting of parliament, a Roman catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his servant by an unknown hand, earnestly advising him to shift off his attendance on parliament at that time, but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he considered the letter as a foolish attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who studying the contents with more attention, began to suspect some dangerous contrivance by gun-powder, and it was judged adviseable to inspect all the vaults below the houses of parliament, but the search was purposely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a justice of peace was sent with proper attendants, and before the door of the vault under the upper house, finding one Fawkes, who had just finished all his preparations, he immediately seized him, and at the same time discovered in the vaults thirty-six barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for setting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whose countenance bespoke his savage disposition, and who, after regretting that he had lost the opportunity of destroying so many heretics, made a full discovery; and the conspirators, who never exceeded eighty in number, being seized by the country people, confessed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of London. Notwithstanding this horrid crime, the bigotted catholics were so devoted to Garnet, a jesuit, one of the conspirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was considered as a martyr.

petual negotiations have given rise to much satire against his person and government, yet they were less expensive and destructive to his people than any wars he could have entered into. He restored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, upon discharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; but he procured from Spain, at the same time, an acknowledgment of their independency.

James gave his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and he soon after assumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abused for his tame behaviour after that prince had lost his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be observed, that he always opposed his son-in-law's assuming the crown of Bohemia; that, had he kindled a war to re-instate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have stood single in the same, excepting the feeble and uncertain assistance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing however is more certain, than that James furnished the elector with large sums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raised a regiment of 3,200 men, under Sir Horace Ver, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anspach, refused to second them against Spinola, the Spanish general, and that the elector hurt his own cause, by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops instead of Anspach.

James has been greatly and justly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His first was Robert Carr, a private Scots gentleman, who was raised to be first minister and earl of Somerset. He married the countess of Essex, who had obtained a divorce from her husband, and was with her found guilty of poisoning Sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James, contrary, as it is said, to a solemn oath he made, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private English gentleman, who, upon Somerset's disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of favour and familiarity with his sovereign. James had, at that time, formed a system of policy for attaching himself intimately to the court of Spain, that it might assist him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this system he had sacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hostilities against the Spanish settlements in the West-Indies. James having lost his eldest son Henry, prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popish match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his son Charles, who had succeeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the son as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and against the king's will they travelled in disguise to Spain, where a most solemn farce of courtship was played; but the prince returned without his bride, and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Bristol, who was then ambassador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not persuade to furnish money equal to his demands; and at last he agreed to his son's marrying the princess Henrietta Maria, sister to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of this match, and it is
thought,

thought, that had he lived, he would have discarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of 22 years. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter, Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who restored the pure taste of architecture in England. His was the golden reign for theological learning; and, under him, poetical genius, tho' not much encouraged at court, arrived at its vertical point.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princess Henrietta Maria. He seems to have been but a cold lover, and he quarrelled with, and sent back, her favourite attendants a few days after her arrival in England. On the other hand, she had a high spirit, disdained and disliked every thing that was incompatible in government with her Italian and arbitrary education, and was a disagreeable wife, notwithstanding her husband's submission and tenderness. The spirit of the people had forced the late king into a breach with Spain, and Charles early gave such indications of his partiality for Buckingham, and his own despotic temper, that the parliament was remiss in furnishing him with money for carrying on the war. In a short time, Buckingham persuaded Charles to take the part of the French Hugonots, in their quarrel with that crown. They were so ill supported, though Charles was sincere in serving them, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the protestant interest received an irrecoverable blow in France. The blame of all the public miscarriages and disgraces was thrown, by the almost unanimous voice, both of the parliament and people, upon the favourite; but he sheltered himself from their vengeance under the royal protection, till he was murdered by one Felton, a subaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which soon after surrendered to cardinal Richieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, which happened in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the English patriots, in that enlightened age, considered as so many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impositions upon trade, which were refused to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the House of Commons. Some of them were imprisoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The House of Commons resented those proceedings by drawing up a protest, and denying admittance to the gentleman-usher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finished. This served only to widen the breach, and the king dissolved the parliament, after which he exhibited informations against nine of the most eminent members, among whom was the great Mr Seldon. They objected to the jurisdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were sent to prison during the king's pleasure.

Every thing now operated towards the destruction of Charles. The Commons had voted him no money, even for the maintenance of his household; and presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not at all understood, he levied money upon monopolies of salt, soap, and such necessities, and other obsolete claims, particularly for knighthood. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine; Prynne, a lawyer; and Bostwick, a physician; all of them

men of mean parts, but desperately resolute and fiery, sounded the trumpet of sedition, and their punishments were so severe, that they increased the unpopularity of the government. Unfortunately for Charles, he put his conscience into the hands of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himself, both in church and state. Laud advised him to persecute the Puritans, and to introduce the religion of the church of England into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed secret connections with the discontented English, and invaded England, where Charles was so ill served by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots; but neither party being sincere in observing the terms, and Charles discovering that some of their great men had offered to throw themselves under the protection of the French king, he raised a fresh army by virtue of his prerogative. All his preparations, however, were baffled by the Scots, who made themselves masters of Newcastle and Durham, and being now openly befriended by the House of Commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles did this with so bad a grace, though he took a journey to Scotland for that purpose, that it did him no service; on the contrary, it encouraged the Commons to rise in their demands. He had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, president of the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed to be the first minister of state. Strafford had been at the head of the opposition, and by changing his party, he became so much the object of public detestation, that they forced Charles in an illegal and imperious manner to consent to the cutting off his head; and Laud lost his soon after in like manner.

Charles, upon various occasions, saw the necessity of moderation, and sought to recover the affections of his people, first by passing the petition of right, and afterwards agreeing to other popular demands made by the Commons. These compliances did him no service. A rebellion broke out in Ireland, where the protestants were massacred by the papists, and great pains were taken to persuade the public that Charles secretly favoured them out of hatred to his English subjects. The bishops were expelled the House of Peers, and the leaders of the English House of Commons still kept up a correspondence with the discontented Scots. Charles was ill enough advised to go in person to the House of Commons, and demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr Pym, Mr Hampden, Mr Hollis, Sir Arthur Haselrig, and Mr Stroud, should be apprehended, but they previously had made their escape. This act of Charles was resented as high treason against his people, and the Commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them. The city of London took the alarm, and the accused members into its protection. The train-bands were raised, and the mobs were so unruly, that Charles removed from Whitehall to Hampton-court, and from thence into Yorkshire, where he raised an army to face that which the parliament, or rather the House of Commons, had raised in and about London.

That the nation in general did not think their liberties in danger, or that the king was a tyrant, appears from the alacrity and numbers with which he was served, and which was composed of three-

fourths of the landed property of England. The parliament, however, took upon themselves the executive power, and were favoured by many of the trading towns and corporations, but its great resource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindsey, a brave, but not an enterprising commander, but he had great dependence on his nephews the princes Rupert and Maurice, sons to the elector palatine, by his sister, the princess Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war the sense of honour which prevailed among the king's officers was too strong for the principles on which the parliament forces fought, but a spirit of enthusiasm catching the latter, it became too powerful for honour. The earl of Essex was made general under the parliament, and the first battle was fought at Edgehill in Warwickshire, in October 1642; but both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles, for the parliament was so much distressed, that they invited the Scots to come to their assistance, and they accordingly invaded England anew, with about 20,000 horse and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houses met; but his enemies continued still sitting at Westminster, where they prosecuted their animosities against the royalists with great fury. The independent party, which had scarcely before been thought of, began now to unmask themselves and to figure at Westminster. They equally hated the Presbyterians, who till then had conducted the rebellion, as they did the royalists; and such was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed, for dismissing the earls of Essex and Manchester, and the heads of the Presbyterians, from the parliament's service, and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a Presbyterian, and some independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with unremitting fury on both sides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewise many other successes, and having defeated Sir William Waller, he pursued the earl of Essex, who remained still in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to escape by sea, but his infantry surrendered themselves prisoners to the royalists, though his cavalry delivered themselves by their valour.

The first fatal blow the king's army received was at Marston-moor, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken prisoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell, and though it might have been retrieved by the successes of Charles in the West, yet his whole conduct was a string of mistakes, till at last, his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were set on foot during the war, and the heads of the Presbyterian party would have agreed to terms that would have bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted, betrayed, and over-ruled, by the independents, who were assisted by the stiffness, and unamiable behaviour, of Charles himself. In short, the independents at last succeeded, in persuading the members at Westminster that Charles was not to be trusted, whatever his concessions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royalists rushed into ruin. Sir Thomas Fairfax,

Fairfax, whose father, lord Fairfax, remained in the North, was at the head of the army, which was now new-modelled, so that Charles by piecemeal lost all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the decisive battle of Naseby, owing partly, as usual, to the misconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed by fresh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be safe.

The Scots were then besieging Newark, and no good understanding subsisted between them and the English parliamentarians, but the best and most royal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy situation of his affairs, he escaped in disguise from Oxford to the Scots army before Newark, upon a promise of protection. The Scots, however, were so intimidated, by the resolutions of the parliament at Westminster, that they put the person of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, not suspecting the fatal consequences.

The Presbyterians now saw, more than ever, the necessity of making peace with the king, but they were no longer masters, being forced to receive laws from the army, and the independents. The latter now avowed their intentions. The first by force took Charles out of the hands of the commissioners in June 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned forty-one of the Presbyterian members, voted the House of Peers to be useless, and that of the Commons was reduced to 150 independents, and most of them officers of the army. In the mean while Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissensions, was carried from prison to prison, and sometimes cajoled by the independents, with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were set on foot, but all miscarried, and he had been imprudent enough, after his affecting an escape, to put himself into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the isle of Wight. A fresh negociation was begun and almost finished, when the independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, once more seized upon the king's person, brought him a prisoner to London, carried him before a mock court of justice, of their own erecting, and after a sham trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and there is reason to believe, that affliction had taught him so much wisdom and moderation, that had he been restored to his throne, he would have become a most excellent prince. This undoubtedly was the sense of his people, at the time of his murder, as it was universally detested by all but the parricides, who brought him to the block, and were heated by enthusiasm. Many, in the course of the rebellion, who had been his great opponent in parliament, became sincere converts to his cause, in which they lost their lives and fortunes, and never did any prince die more generally lamented, than he did by his people. We cannot reflect upon the great loss of lives, to the amount at least of 100,000 fighting men, during the six years of the civil war, without being inclined to think that England was more populous then, than it is now. Though the history of that period has

been minutely related, by writers of all parties, who had the very best opportunities to know the true state of the nation, yet we do not find that the loss of men had any influence upon agriculture or commerce, or the exercise of the common arts of life, and provisions rather sunk than rose in their value. The surviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were successively kings of England, Henry, duke of Gloucester, who died soon after his brother's restoration; the princess Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William, prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princess Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whose daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block were men of different persuasions and principles, but many of them possessed most amazing abilities for government. They omitted no measure that could give a perpetual exclusion to kingly power in England, and it cannot be denied, that after they erected themselves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things, for retrieving the glory of England by sea. They were joined by many of the Presbyterians, and both factions hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards against the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet superior to any that had ever been seen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worcester. The same commonwealth passed an act of navigation, and declaring war against the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible at sea, they effectually humbled those republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time Cromwell, who hated the republic, had the address to get himself declared commander in chief of the English army. Admiral Blake, and the other English admirals, carried the terror of the English name by sea, to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten, for which reason he went, without any ceremony, with a file of musqueteers, dissolved the parliament, and opprobriously drove all the members out of their house. He next annihilated the council of state, with whom the executive power was lodged; and transferred the administration of government to about 140 persons, whom he summoned to Whitehall on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the English were again victorious, still continued. Seven bloody engagements by sea, were fought in little more than the compass of one year, and in the last, which was decisive in favour of England, the Dutch lost their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he must encounter unsurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood, and his other friends, if he should persist in his resolution. He was, however, declared lord protector of the commonwealth of England, a title, under which he exercised all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. He next proceeded to re-model the government, and various were the schemes

schemes that were proposed, established, and proved abortive. Those schemes, however, were temporary, and suited to each juncture, nor have we any high idea of Cromwell's political capacity, but in his management of the army, by which he did every thing. He was openly or secretly thwarted by people of property all over England, and however dazzled historians have been with his amazing fortune and power, it appears, by the best evidences, that during the continuance of his protectorate, he was perpetually distressed for money, to keep the wheels of his government going.

His wants at last led him into the fatal error of taking part with France against Spain, in hopes that the rich Spanish prizes would supply him with ready money. He lent the French count 6200 men, and Dunkirk being taken by their assistance from the Spaniards, he took possession of it. Finding that his usurpation gave as much discontent to his own party, as terror to the royalists, he had thoughts of renewing the model of the constitution, and actually erected a House of Lords out of his own creatures. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more despotically than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even those few threatened to oppose him, if he should take upon him the title of king. Historians, in drawing a character of Cromwell, have been imposed upon by his amazing success, and dazzled by the lustre of his fortune; but when we consult Thurloe's, and other state-papers, the imposition in a great measure vanishes. After a most uncomfortable usurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died surrounded by enthusiasts, on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more respect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than she had been treated with since the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell abolished, and who as it were instantaneously called forth the naval strength of the kingdom. Neither they nor Cromwell had formed any fixed plan of legislation, and his safety was owing to the different sentiments of government that prevailed among the heads of the republic. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to 1,300,000*l.* of which a million went to the support of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the same year Cromwell abolished all tenures *in capite*, by knight's service, and socage in chief, and likewise the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances that had been complained of, during the late reigns, were likewise removed. Next year the total charge, or public expence of England, amounted to 2,326,989*l.* The collections by assessments, excise, and customs paid into the exchequer, amounted to 2,362,000*l.* 4*s.*

Upon the whole, it appears that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches as in power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a sure symptom of increasing commerce. The navigation act, that palladium of the English trade, was planned and established, though afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were abolished, and liberty of conscience to all sects was granted, to the

vast advantage of population and manufactures, which had suffered greatly by Laud's intolerant schemes having driven numbers of handicrafts to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations, we may add the modesty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increase their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly settled in the government, would have broken through the sober maxims of the republicans; for, some time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his person, court, and attendants. We know of no art, or science, that was patronized by the usurper, and yet he had the good fortune to meet in the person of Cooper, an excellent miniature painter, and his coins done by Simons, exceed in beauty and workmanship any of that age. He is likewise said to have paid some regard to men of learning, and particularly to those entrusted with the care of youth of the universities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who succeeded his father Oliver, as protector, sufficiently proves the little forecast which the latter had in matters of government, and his being almost totally unbefriended. Richard was placed in his dignity by those who wanted to make him the tool of their own government, and he was soon after driven, without the least struggle or opposition, into contempt and obscurity. It is in vain for historians of any party to ascribe the restoration of Charles II. (who, with his mother and brothers, during the usurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious subsistence,) to the merits of any particular persons. It was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who found by experience, that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by restoring the ancient constitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, excepting such as served his ambition or interest, had the sagacity to observe this, and after temporizing in various shapes, being at the head of the army, he made the principal figure in restoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being restored in 1660, in the first year of his reign, seemed to be under no influence, but that of his people's happiness. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the excise for life, and in this act, coffee and tea are first mentioned. By his long residence, and that of his friends abroad, he imported into England the culture of many elegant vegetables, such as that of Asparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and several kinds of beans, peas, and sallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered, but neglected, by the English, during the late usurpation, was improved and made a sugar colony. The Royal Society was instituted, and many popular acts respecting trade and colonization were passed. In short, Charles knew, and cultivated the true interests of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleasure and sunk in indolence, failings that had the same consequences as despotism itself. He took a paternal concern in the sufferings of the citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666; and its being rebuilt with greater lustre and conveniences, is a proof of; he
increase

increase of her trade; but there was no bound of Charles's love of pleasure, which led him into the most extravagant expences. He has been severely, but perhaps unjustly censured, for selling Dunkirk to the French king, to supply his necessities, after he had squandered the immense sums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000*l.* sterling. In this he is more defensible than he was with his secret connections with France. These are supposed to have brought on a war with the Dutch, but their behaviour and ingratitude to England merited the severest chastisement.

The first symptoms of his degeneracy as a king appeared in his giving way to the popular clamour against the lord Clarendon, one of the wisest and most disinterested statesmen that ever England could boast of, and sacrificing him to the sycophants of his pleasurable hours. The first Dutch war, which begun in 1665, was carried on, with great resolution and spirit, under the duke of York; but thro' Charles's misapplication of the public money, which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to insult the royal navy of England, by sailing up the Medway, as far as Chatham, and destroying several capital ships of war. Soon after this a peace was concluded at Breda, between Great Britain and the States General, for the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands, and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, it was called the triple alliance.

If we look into the history of those times, we shall find that the humbling the power of France was the ruling passion of almost all the rest of Europe; but, at the same time, every state at enmity with her, had particular views of its own, which defeated every plan of confederacy against the French power. The situation of Charles, in this respect, was delicate. The insults and rivalry of the Dutch were intolerable to the trading part of his people, but his parliament thought that all considerations ought to give way to the humiliation of the French king. Charles found such opposition from his parliament, and such difficulties in raising money, that he was persuaded by his French mistress, the dutchess of Portsmouth, to throw himself into the arms of the French king, who promised to supply him with money, sufficient to enable him to rule without a parliament. This has always been a capital charge against Charles II. and it had, we are apt to think, too great a weight with his parliament, whose conduct, in some particulars, is not to be vindicated.

In 1671, Charles was so ill advised, as to seize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8*l.* per cent. and to shut up the exchequer. This was an indefensible step, and Charles pretended to justify it by the necessity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a fresh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almost proved fatal to that republic. In this war the English fleet and army acted in conjunction with those of France. The duke of York commanded the English fleet, and displayed great gallantry in that station. The duke of Monmouth, the eldest and favourite natural son of Charles, commanded 6000 English forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries, and all Holland must have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the
vanity

vanity of their monarch, Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and some very unforeseen circumstances.

All confidence was now lost between Charles and his parliament, notwithstanding the glory which the English fleet obtained by sea against the Dutch. The popular clamour at last obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in consideration of 200,000*l.* which was paid him; but in some things Charles acted very despotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houses, and ordered them to be shut up, but in a few days after to be opened. His parliament addressed him, but in vain, to make war with France, in the year 1677, for he was entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a pensioner. It is not, however, to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increased, and Charles entered into many vigorous measures for its protection and support.

This gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more furious, and untractable, against the French and the Papists; at the head of whom was the king's eldest brother, and presumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles, notwithstanding the opposition he met with in parliament, knew that he had the affections of his people, but was too indolent to take advantage of that circumstance. He dreaded the prospect of a civil war, and offered any concessions to avoid it. The conduct of his parliament on this occasion is indefensible. Many of the members were bent upon such a revolution as afterwards took place, and were secretly determined, that the duke of York never should reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some other miscreants, forged a plot, charging the Papists with a design to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jesuits in England, and from St Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more self-contradictory, than the whole of this forgery, yet it was supported by even a frantic zeal, on the part of the parliament. The aged and innocent lord Strafford, Coleman, (secretary to the duke of York,) with many Jesuits, and other Papists, were publicly executed on perjured evidences. The queen herself escaped with difficulty: the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts, and Charles, though convinced that the whole was an infamous impostor, yielded to the torrent. At last it spent its force. The earl of Shaftesbury, who was at the head of the opposition, pushed on the total exclusion of the duke of York from the throne. He was seconded by the ill advised duke of Monmouth; and the bill, after passing the Commons, miscarried in the House of Peers. All England was again in a flame, but the king, by a well-timed adjournment in the parliament to Oxford, recovered the affections of his people to an almost incredible degree.

The duke of York, and his party, made a scandalous use of their victory. They trumped up, on their side, a plot of the Protestants for killing or seizing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as false as that which had been forged against the Papists. The excellent lord Russel, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sidney, and several distinguished Protestants, were tried, condemned and suffered death, and

the king finally overcame all opposition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the measures of the court, as were almost all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth, and the earl of Shaftesbury, were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and to have executed some measures for the future quiet of his reign, when he died in February, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa, but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters are now among the most distinguished of the British nobility.

In this reign the heads of the opposition were Presbyterians, and had been greatly instrumental in the civil war against the late king and the usurpations that followed. They had been raised and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being useful in bringing their party into his measures, and he would probably have succeeded, had not the remains of the old royalists, and the dissipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleasure. The Presbyterians, however, availed themselves of their credit, in the early part of his reign, when the fervour of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament such a number of their friends as rendered the reign of Charles very uneasy, and it was owing, perhaps, to them, that civil liberty, and protestantism, now exist in the English government. On the other hand, they seemed to have carried their jealousy of a popish successor too far, and the people, without doors, certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been satisfied with the legal restraints and disabilities which Charles offered to impose upon his successor. This gave such a turn to the affections of the people, as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, masters of the laws and liberties of England.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarse and indelicate. The court was the nursery of vice, and the stages exhibited scenes of impurity. Some readers, however, were found, who could admire Milton, as well as Dryden, and never, perhaps, were the pulpits of England so well supplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural, witness the stile of their sermons; and the days of Charles may be called the Augustan age of mathematics and natural philosophy. Charles loved, patronized, and understood the arts, more than he encouraged or rewarded them, especially those of English growth, but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedness, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the first English prince who formed a body of standing forces as guards to his person, it ought to be remembered, at the same time, that he carried the art of ship-building to the highest perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its finest improvements to his and his brothers' complete knowledge of naval affairs and architecture.

All the opposition which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne,

throne, seems to have vanished at the accession of James II. The popular affection towards him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almost ruined protestantism. The army and people supported him in crushing an ill-formed and indeed wicked rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful son of Charles II. and, as such, had assumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, James desperately resolved to try how far the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-resistance. The experiment failed him. He took the most provoking steps to render popery the established religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws; instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court; openly received and admitted into his privy council the pope's emissaries, and gave them more respect than was due to the ministers of a sovereign prince. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people are almost beyond description, and were disapproved of by the pope himself, and all sober Roman catholics. His sending to prison, and prosecuting for a libel, seven bishops, for presenting a petition against reading his declaration, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his best protestant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wished well to James, applied for relief to William, prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married the princess Mary, that king's eldest daughter, and he embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, on pretence of restoring church and state to their own due rights. Upon his arrival in England he was joined, not only by the Whigs, but many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter the princess Anne, and her husband, George, prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange, who soon discovered that he expected the crown. James might still have reigned, but he was surrounded with French emissaries and ignorant Jesuits, who wished him not to reign rather than not to restore popery. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen and son, the late pretender, then but six months old, to France, and to follow them in person, which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in English history is termed *the Revolution*.

This short reign affords little matter for the national progress in its true interests. James is allowed, on all hands, to have understood them, and that had it not been for his bigotry, he would have been a most excellent king of England. The writings of the English divines against popery, in this reign, are esteemed to be the most masterly pieces of controversy that ever were published on that subject.

Had it not been for the baleful influence of the Jesuits over James, the prince of Orange might have found his views upon the crown frustrated. The conduct of James gave him advantages he could not have hoped for. Few were in the prince's secret, and when a convention

convention of the states was called, it was plain, that had not James abdicated his throne, it would not have been filled by the prince and princess of Orange. Even that was not done without long debates. It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was spent in an almost uninterrupted course of hostilities with that power, which were supported by England at an expence she had never known before. The nation had grown cautious through the experience of the two last reigns, and he gave his consent to the *bill of rights*, which contained all the people could claim, for the preservation of their own liberties. The two last kings had made a very bad use of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be sufficient to raise and maintain a standing army. The revenue was therefore divided, part was allotted for the current national service of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament, and part, which is still called the civil list money, was given to the king, for the support of his house and dignity.

It was the just sense the people had of their civil and religious rights alone that could provoke the people of England to agree to the late revolution, for they never in other respects had been raised to so high a pitch of wealth and prosperity as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ships, as appears from Dr Davenant, was, that year, near double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which in 1660 was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increased to 101,032 tons. The increase of the customs, and the annual rental of England, was in the same proportion. It was therefore no wonder, if a strong party, both in the parliament and nation, was formed against the government, which was hourly increased by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being successful, required an enormous expence, and the Irish continued in general faithful to king James. Many English who wished well to the Stuart family dreaded their being restored by conquest, and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne against James, who there lost all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France, however, proved superior to that of England in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue, which the French feel to this day.

Invasions were threatened, and conspiracies discovered every day, against the government, and the supply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, and every subject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the several counties. Those who were the most loyal were the heaviest taxed, and this preposterous burthen still continues; but the greatest and boldest operation in finances that ever took place was established in this reign, which was carrying on the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary securities, which form what are now called the public funds. The chief projector of this scheme is said to have been Charles Montague, afterwards Lord Halifax. His chief argument for such a project was, that it would oblige the monied part of the nation to befriend the revolution

tion interest, because after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid, but by supporting that interest, and that the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious. How well those views have been answered, is needless to observe.

William, notwithstanding the vast service he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auspices, particularly in the establishment of the bank of England, and the recoining the silver money, met with so many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually resolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a speech for that purpose, which he was prevailed upon to suppress. He long bore the affronts he met with, in hopes of being supported in his war with France, but at last, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryswick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had lost his queen, but the government was continued in his person. After peace was restored, the Commons obliged him to disband his army, all but an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of seeing the whole Spanish monarchy in possession of France at the death of the catholic king, Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic measure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the house of Bourbon and Austria. This treaty was highly resented by the parliament, and some of his ministry were impeached for advising it. It is thought that William saw his error when it was too late. His ministers were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of king James discovered the insincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his son king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houses passed the bill of abjuration, and an address for a war with France. The last and most glorious act of William's reign was his passing the bill for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover, on the twelfth of June 1701. His death was hastened by a fall he had from his horse, soon after he had renewed the grand alliance against France, on the eighth of March, 1702, the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding. His notions of national government inclined towards despotism; and it was observed, that though he owed his royalty to the Whigs, yet he favoured the Tories as often as he could do it with safety. The rescue and preservation of the protestant religion and public liberty were the chief glories of William's reign, for England, under him, suffered severely both by sea and land, and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to the then unheard of sum of 14,000,000*l*.

Anne, princess of Denmark, being the next protestant heir to her father James II. succeeded king William in the throne. As she had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought she would have deviated from his measures, but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has since been well known by the
name

name of the Pretender, left her no choice, and she resolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, (who had been imprisoned in the late reign on a suspicion of Jacobitism, and whose wife was her favourite,) as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a statesman, for that earl excelled in both. No sooner was he placed at the head of the English army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in consequence of the intrigues of France, and at the same time resenting the partition treaty, in which his consent had not been asked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Lewis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance, that still subsists, between France and that nation. Philip's succession was however disputed by the second son of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himself the title of Charles III. and his cause was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy against the House of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquisition of the whole Spanish dominions.

The capital measure of continuing the war against France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her ministry, who were for the most part Tories, and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading Whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treasury. His son had married the earl of Marlborough's eldest daughter, and the earl could trust no other with that important department.

We shall hereafter have occasion to mention the glorious victories obtained by the earl, who was soon made duke of Marlborough. Those of Blenheim and Ramilies gave the first effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim, the emperor of Germany was saved from immediate destruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confessedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken prisoner, and sent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, besides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the same time, the English admiral Sir George Rook reduced Gibraltar, which still remains in our possession. The battle of Ramilies was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loss of the enemy there has been variously reported; it is generally supposed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken prisoners; but the consequences shewed its importance.

After the battle of Ramilies the states of Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognized Charles for their sovereign, while the confederates took possession of Louvian, Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and several other considerable places in Flanders and Brabant, and acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French, was at

Oudenarde

Oudenarde, where they lost 3000 on the field, and about 7000 were taken prisoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, with the loss of about 20,000 men. Thus far the successes of the English were flattering, but they were attended with many potions of bitter alloy.

The queen had sent a very fine army to assist Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though some advantages were obtained at sea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment if not the disgrace of England. Prince George of Denmark, husband to the queen, was then lord high admiral, but he had trusted the affairs of that board to underlings, who were either corrupted or ignorant, and complaints coming from every quarter, with regard to that department, the House of Commons were put in very bad humour, nor did things seem to be much better managed after the prince's death. The immense sums, raised for the current service of the year, being severely felt, and but indifferently accounted for, it appeared that England had borne the chief burden of the war; that neither the Austrians, Germans, nor Dutch, had furnished their stipulated quotas, and that they trusted to the English parliament for making them good. A noble design, which had been planned at the court, and was to have been executed by the assistance of the fleet of England, for taking Toulon, at a vast expence, miscarried through the selfishness of the court of Vienna, whose chief object of attention was their own war in Naples. At the same time England felt severely the scarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures, and the French king, the haughty Lewis XIV. now professed his readiness to agree to almost any terms the English should prescribe.

These, and many other internal disputes about the prerogative, the succession, religion, and other public matters, had created great ferment in the nation and parliament. The queen stuck close to the duke of Marlborough and his friends, who finding that the Tories inclined to treat with France, put themselves at the head of the Whigs, who were for continuing the war, from which the duke and his dependents received immense emoluments. The failures of the Germans and Dutch could not however be longer dissembled, and the personal interest of the dutchess of Marlborough with the queen began to be shaken by her own insolence.

The Whigs, at last, were forced to give way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburg. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townsend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. It soon appeared that the English plenipotentiaries were not in earnest, and that the Dutch were entirely guided by the duke of Marlborough. The French king was gradually brought to comply with all the demands of the allies, excepting that of employing his own troops against the duke of Anjou, in Spain, where the fortune of war continued still doubtful. All his offers were rejected by the duke and his associates, and the war was continued.

The unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries at Ger-

Gertruydenburg saved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in their favour. Means were found to convince the queen, that the war, in the end, if continued, must prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the people was, that the church was in danger, which, though groundless, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthless preacher, had espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the ridiculous, impracticable doctrines of passive obedience, and non-resistance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their strength in this man's case. He was impeached by the Commons, and found guilty by the Lords, who ventured to pass upon him only a very small censure. After this trial, the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the dutchess of Marlborough, and the whig-administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by Tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a cessation of arms; but they were disregarded by the queen's allies in the British pay.

Conferences were opened for a peace at Utrecht, to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew sensible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the English. In short, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not be informed of the particular cessions made by the French, especially that of Dunkirk; but, after all, the peace would have been indefensible, had it not been for the death of the emperor Joseph, by which his brother, Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became Emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the bad faith of the English allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the British parliament almost the whole weight of the war, not to mention the exhausted state of the kingdom. Mr Harley, who was created earl of Oxford, and lord high treasurer of England, was then considered as the queen's first minister, but the negotiations for the peace went through the hands of Mr Harley and lord Bolingbroke, one of the principal secretaries of state. The ministry endeavoured to stifle the complaints of the Whigs, and the remonstrances of prince Eugene, who arrived in England on the part of the allies, by falling upon the contractors, foragers, and other agents of the fleet and army, whom they accused of corrupt practices.

The queen was at this time in a critical situation. The Whigs, without attempting to answer the arguments of the Tories for peace, condemned it as shameful. The majority of the House of Lords was of that party, but that of the House of Commons were Tories. The queen was afraid that the Peers would reject the peace, and by an unprecedented exercise of her prerogative, she created twelve Peers at one time, which secured the approbation of the parliament for the peace. Such was the state of affairs at this critical period; and, from their complexion, it is probable that the queen had, by some secret influence, which never has yet been discovered, and was even concealed from her ministers, inclined to call her brother to the succession. The rest of the queen's life was rendered uneasy by the jarring of parties. The Whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke

duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and she was obliged to dismiss her lord-treasurer, when she fell into a lethargic disorder, which carried her off on the first of August, 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and thirteenth year of her reign*.

Anne had not strength of mind, by herself, to carry any important resolve into execution; and she left public measures in so indecisive a state, that upon her death the succession took place in terms of the act and settlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, was proclaimed king of Great Britain, his mother, who would have been next in succession, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with strong prepossessions against the tory ministry, most of whom he displaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; while the Scots were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily suppressed in the beginning of the next year. Some deluded noblemen and gentlemen in the North of England joined a party of the Scots rebels, but they were surrounded at Preston, where they delivered up their arms, and their leaders were sent prisoners to London, where some of them suffered. The Tories and Jacobites, however, raised mobs and commotions at London, Oxford, and other parts of England, but they were soon suppressed, by making their ringleaders examples of justice. Lord Oxford was imprisoned for three years, but the capital prosecution of him by the Whigs, for the hand he had in the peace of Utrecht, was secretly disapproved of by the king, and dropped.

After all, the nation was in such a disposition, that the ministry durst not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was sitting voted a continuance of their duration from three to seven years, which is thought to have been the greatest stretch of parliamentary power ever known. Several other extraordinary measures took place about the same time. Mr Shippen, an excellent speaker, and member of parliament, was sent to the tower for saying that the king's speech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews a young journeyman printer, was hanged for composing a silly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadversion. The truth is, the whig ministry were excessively jealous of every thing that seemed to affect their master's title, and George I. though a sagacious moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too subservient to his continental connections, which were various and complicated.

* With her ended the line of the Stewarts, which, from the accession of James I. anno 1603, had swayed the sceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 143 years, from the accession of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, son of James II. and brother to Queen Anne, upon his father's decease, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St Germain's, and for some time treated as such by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He resided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romish faith till his death, which happened a few years since. He left two sons, viz. Charles Edward, who was defeated at Culloden, in 1746, and, upon his father's death, repaired to Rome, where he is said chiefly to reside as a private gentleman. Henry, his second son, who enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of Cardinal York.

plicated. He quarrelled with the Czar of Muscovy about their German concerns, and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden, been killed so critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by those Northern conquerors, great preparations being made for that purpose.

In 1718 he quarrelled with Spain, on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed by Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States General; and his admiral, Sir George Byng, by his orders, destroyed the Spanish fleet near Syracuse. A trifling war with Spain, then commenced, but it was soon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national punishment, different from plague, pestilence, and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the sudden rise of the South-Sea stock, one of the trading companies. This company was but of late erection, and was owing to a scheme of carrying on an exclusive trade, and making a settlement in the South-Seas, which had been formed in 1711. In 1720 the company obtained an act to increase their capital stock by redeeming the public debts; and was then invested with the assiento of negroes, which had been stipulated between Great Britain and Spain. In short, it became so favourite a company, that by the twentieth of June this year, their stock rose to 890 per cent. and afterwards to 1000; but before the end of September it fell to 150, by which thousands were involved in ruin. Though this might be owing to the inconsiderate avarice of the subscribers, yet the public imagined that the ministry had contributed to the calamity; and some of the directors insinuated as if the ministers and their friends had been the chief gainers. The latter, however, had the address to escape without censure, but the parliament passed a bill which confiscated the estates of the directors, with an allowance for their maintenance: a poor reparation for the public injuries!

The Jacobites thought to avail themselves of the national ferment in consequence of the South-Sea scheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day increased. On this one Lawyer, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treason. Several persons of great quality and distinction were apprehended on suspicion, but the storm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord bishop of Rochester, who was deprived of his see and seat in parliament, and banished for life. This must have been at best an idle plot, and the reality of it has never been discovered, so that the justice of the bishop's censure has been questioned. After the ferment of this plot had subsided, the ministry, who were all in the interest of Hanover, ventured upon several bold measures, in some of which the national interest, if not honour, was evidently sacrificed to that electorate. The crown of Great Britain was engaged in every continental dispute, however remote it was from her interest; and the difference still subsisting between the courts of Madrid and Vienna, it was agreed that it should be determined by a congress to be held at Cambray, under the auspices of France. This congress proved abortive, and England was involved in fresh difficulties on account of Hanover. So fluctuating was the state of Europe at this time, that in September

1725, a fresh treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Prussia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A Squadron was sent to the Baltic, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoyer, to the West Indies, to watch the Spanish plate fleets. This last was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and most of his men perished by epidemical diseases, and the hulks of his ships rotted so as to render them unfit for service. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They lost near 10,000 men in the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise. The king, in his speech to the parliament, publicly accused the emperor of a design to place the pretender upon the throne of Great Britain, but this was strenuously denied by baron Palmer, the imperial resident at London, who was therefore ordered to leave the kingdom.

A quarrel with the emperor was the most dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an opposition in the House of Commons was formed by Sir William Windham and Mr Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more lavish in granting money, and raising enormous subsidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Hesse Cassel. Such was the state of affairs in Europe, when George I. suddenly died on the 11th of June, 1727, at Osnaburgh, in the 68th year of his age, and the 13th of his reign. This period is too late to offer any thing new by way of observation on national improvements. The reign of George I. is remarkable for the incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects to which it gave rise, and for the great alteration of the system of Europe, by the concern which the English took in the affairs of the continent. The institution of the sinking fund for diminishing the national debt is likewise owing to this period. The value of the Northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better understood than formerly, and the state of manufactures began to shift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal distribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to subsist in certain counties, which had been forwarded in giving in the true value of their estates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was considered as first minister of England when George I. died, and some differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, that upon the accession of the latter to the crown, Sir Robert would be displaced. That might have been the case could another person have been found equally capable of managing the House of Commons, and gratifying that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No minister ever understood better the temper of the people of England, and none perhaps ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, trust, and profit, and almost the House of Commons itself, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, because he thought that war must be fatal to his power; and so well did he succeed, during his long administration, that he never lost a question he was in earnest to carry. The excise-scheme was the first measure that gave a shock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the spirit of the people

people without doors, which might have either produced an insurrection, or endangered his interest in the next general election. Having compromised all differences with Spain, he filled all the courts of Europe with embassies and negotiations, and the new parliament gratified him with the means of performing his engagements. He continued and enlarged the subsidies paid to the German princes for the security of Hanover, and had even the address to obtain from time to time votes of credit for fulfilling his intermediate engagements, and, in the mean while, to amuse the public, he suffered inquiries into the state of the jails, and other matters that did not affect his own power, to proceed.

His pacific system brought him, however, into inconveniencies both at home and abroad. He encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the English shipping in the American seas, and the French to treat the English court with insolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themselves slighted, and they interested themselves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the disgust of the people at the proposed excise-scheme, about the year 1736 and 1737, increased the minority in the House of Commons to 130, some of whom were as able men and as good speakers as ever had sat in a parliament, and taking advantage of the increasing complaints against the Spaniards, they gave the minister great uneasiness. Having thus shewn Walpole's administration in the unfavourable, it is but just we turn to the most advantageous light it will admit of.

He filled the courts of justice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perversion of the known laws of the kingdom. He was so far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the most scurrilous abuse that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two prosecutions for libels, in complaisance to his friends, who thought themselves affected by them, and it cannot be denied that the press of England never was more open or free than during his administration. If he managed the majority of parliament by corruption, which is the main charge against him, it is not to be denied that his enemies were often influenced by no very laudable motives, and that the attempt they made, without specifying any charge, to remove him from his majesty's councils and presence for ever, was illegal and unjust. As to his pacific system, it certainly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to support it, by the increase of her trade, and the improvement of her manufactures.

With regard to the king's own personal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his minister than his favourite, and his majesty often hinted to him, as Walpole himself has been heard to acknowledge, that he was responsible for all the measures of government. The debates concerning the Spanish depredations in the West Indies, and the proofs that were brought to support the complaints of the merchants, made at last an impression even upon many of Walpole's friends. The heads of the opposition in both houses of parliament accused the minister of having, by the treaty of Seville, and other negotiations, introduced a branch of the house of Bourbon into Italy, and depressed the house of Austria, the ancient and

natural ally of England. They exposed, with invincible force of eloquence and reasoning, the injustice and disgrace as well as loss arising from the Spanish depredations, and the necessity of repelling force by force. Sir Robert adhered to his pacific system, and concluded a shameful and indefensible compromise, under the title of a convention, with the court of Spain, which produced a war with that nation.

Queen Caroline, consort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the minister, but she died when a variance subsisted between the king and his son the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power, but the provision to which his birth entitled him, and he put himself at the head of the opposition with so much firmness, that it was generally foreseen that Walpole's power was drawing to a crisis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the minister, was sent with a squadron of six ships to the West Indies, where he took and demolished Porto Bello; but being a hot, untractable man, he miscarried in his other attempts, especially that upon Carthagena, in which many thousands of British lives were wantonly thrown away. The opposition exulted in Vernon's success, and imputed his miscarriages to the minister's starving the war, by withholding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, so prevalent was the interest of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the minister, and after a few trying divisions he retired from the house, resigned his employments, and some days after he was created earl of Oxford.

George II. bore the loss of his minister with the greatest equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and posts of distinction, upon the heads of the opposition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic sanction (which meant the succession of his daughter to the Austrian dominions) through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent causes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able, but a headstrong minister, whom George had made his secretary of state, and, indeed, by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himself at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen; and his not suffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderness for his electoral dominions. This partiality created an universal flame in England, and the clamour raised against his lordship's measures was increased by the duke of Newcastle and his brother, lord chancellor Hardwicke, the lord Harrington, and other ministers, who resigned, or offered to resign their places, if lord Carteret should retain his influence in the cabinet. His majesty was obliged to give way to what he thought was the voice of his people, and he indulged them with accepting the services of some gentlemen who never had been considered as zealous friends to the house of Hanover. After various removals, Mr Pelham was placed at the head of the treasury, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and consequently

consequently was considered as first minister, or rather the power of the premiership was divided between him and his brother the duke of Newcastle.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expensive war, both against the French and Spaniards, and her enemies sought to avail themselves of the general discontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, exceeded the bounds of duty. This naturally suggested to them the idea of applying to the pretender, who resided at Rome, and he agreed that his son Charles, who was a sprightly young man, should repair to France, from whence he set sail, and narrowly escaped with a few followers in a frigate to the Western coasts of Scotland, between the islands of Mull and Sky, where he discovered himself, assembled his followers, and published a manifesto exciting the nation to a rebellion. It is necessary, before we relate the unaccountable success of this enterprise, to make a short retrospect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the West Indies, through the fatal divisions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops, and it was thought that above 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perished in the attempt on Carthagen, and through the inclemency of the air and climate during other expeditions. The year 1742 had been spent in negotiations with the courts of Peterburgh and Berlin, which, though expensive, proved of little or no service to Great Britain, so that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the same situation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Lestock had suffered the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with but little loss; and soon after the French, who had before acted only as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war against the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war carried on a most lucrative trade, nor could they be brought to act against the French, till the people entered into associations and insurrections against the government. Their marine was in a miserable condition, and when they at last sent a body of troops to join the British and Austrian armies, which, indeed, had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with so bad a grace, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earnest. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himself the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almost masters of the barrier in the Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raise the siege, but lost the battle of Fontenoy, and 12,000 of his best men, though it is generally allowed that both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, admiral Anson returned this year to England, with an immense treasure, which he had taken from the Spaniards, in his voyage round the world, though he lost all his fleet but the ship in which he himself sailed; and the English commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortress of Louisburg in the island of Cape Breton.

Such

Such was the state of affairs abroad in August 1745, when the pretender's eldest son, at the head of some Highland followers, surprized and disarmed a party of the king's troops in the Western islands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth; and the rebellion produced a dreadful alarm throughout England. The government never so thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the support of the revolution. The French and the Jacobite party (for such there was at that time in England) had laid a deep scheme for distressing the bank; but common danger abolished all distinctions, and united them in the defence of one interest, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their address to the king, to support it, by receiving bank-notes in payment. This seasonable measure saved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, and the executions that followed, did not restore tranquillity to Europe. Tho' the prince of Orange, son-in-law to his majesty George II. was, by the credit of his majesty and the spirit of the people of the United Provinces, raised to be their Stadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Mastricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made prisoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been accounted for. The allies suffered other disgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was necessary to save the duke and his army from total destruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the English at sea, under the commands of the admirals Anson, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the English arms were not so successful under rear admiral Boscawen in the East Indies. In this state of affairs, the successes of the French and English during the war may be said to have been balanced, and both ministries turned their thoughts to peace. The question is not yet decided which party had the greatest reason to desire it, the French and Spaniards for the immense losses they had sustained by sea, or the allies for the disgraces they had suffered by land.

Whatever may be in this, preliminaries for peace were signed in April 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, in October, the basis of which was the restitution on both sides of all places taken during the war. The number of prizes taken by the English in this war, from its commencement to the signing the preliminaries of peace, was 3434; namely, 1249 from the Spaniards, and 2185 from the French; and that they lost during the war, 3238; 1360 being taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 by the French. Several of the ships taken from the Spaniards were immensely rich; so that the balance upon the whole amounted to almost two millions, in favour of the English. Such is the gross calculation on both sides, but the consequences plainly proved that the losses of the French and Spaniards must have been much greater. The vast fortunes made by private persons in England all of a sudden, sufficiently shewed that immense sums had not been brought to the public account; but the greatest proof was, that next year the interest of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per

per cent. for seven years, after which the whole was to stand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldest stroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, consistently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a small ineffectual opposition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who sold out even made interest to have it replaced on the same security, or were paid off their principal sums out of the sinking fund. This was an era of improvements; Mr Pelham's candour and rectitude of administration leaving him few or no enemies in parliament, and he omitted no opportunity of carrying into execution every scheme for the improvement of commerce, manufactures, and the fisheries; the benefits of which were felt during the succeeding war, and are to this day. Every intelligent person, however, considered the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as no better than an armed cessation of hostilities. The French employed themselves in recruiting and repairing their marine, and had laid a deep scheme for possessing themselves of the British back settlements in America, and for cutting off all communication between the English and the native Indians, in which case our colonies must have been reduced to a narrow slip on the coasts, without the means of getting any subsistence but from the mother country. Fortunately for Great Britain, they disclosed their intention by entering upon hostilities before they had power to support them.

In the mean while, a new treaty of commerce was signed at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in consideration of 100,000*l.* the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the *asiento*-contract, by virtue of which that company had supplied the Spanish West-Indies with negroes. In March 1750, died, universally lamented, his royal highness Frederick prince of Wales. In May 1751, an act passed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old style was abolished, and the new style established, to the vast convenience of the subject. This was done by sinking eleven days in September, 1752, and thereafter beginning the year on the 1st of January. In 1753 the famous act passed for preventing clandestine marriages; but whether it is for the benefit of the subject is a point that is still very questionable. The public of England about this time sustained an immense loss by the death of Mr Pelham, who was indisputably the honestest, wisest, the most popular, and therefore the most successful minister England had ever seen.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back settlements in America, and the dispositions they made for sending over vast bodies of veteran troops to support those encroachments, produced a wonderful spirit in England, especially after admiral Boscawen was ordered with eleven ships of the line, besides a frigate and two regiments, to sail to the Banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the rest of their fleet escaping up the river St Lawrence, by the straits of Bellefleur. No sooner was it known that hostilities were begun, than the public of England poured their money into the government's loan; and orders were issued for making general reprisals in

Europe

Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ships, whether outward or homeward bound, should be stopped and brought into British ports. These orders were so effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, above 300 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8000 of their best sailors were brought into British ports. This well-timed measure had such an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchantmen, nor to man their ships of war, for about two years after near 30,000 French seamen were found to be prisoners in England.

In July 1755, general Braddock, who had been injudiciously sent from England to attack the French and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuscade of the French and Indians near Fort du Quefne; but major general Johnson defeated a body of the French, near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

The English at this time could not be said to have any first minister; some great men agreed in nothing but in opposing the measures of the cabinet, which had been undertaken without their consent. The English navy in 1755 consisted of one ship of 110 guns, five of 100 guns each, thirteen of 90, eight of 80, five of 74, twenty-nine of 70, four of 66, one of 64, thirty-three of 60, three of 54, twenty-eight of 50, four of 44, thirty-five of 40, and forty-two of 20; four sloops of war of 18 guns each, two of 16, eleven of 14, thirteen of 12, and one of 10; besides a great number of bomb-ketches, fire-ships, and tenders; a force sufficient to oppose the united maritime strength of all the powers of Europe. Whilst that of the French, even at the end of this year, and including the ships then upon the stocks, amounted to no more than six ships of 80 guns, twenty-one of 74, one of 72, four of 70, thirty-one of 64, two of 60, six of 50, and thirty-two frigates.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by those invincible armaments, they were sunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack fort St Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been sent out with a squadron at least equal to that of the French, had been baffled if not defeated by their admiral Galissoniere, and that at last Minorca was surrendered by general Blackeney. The English were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at those events. The loss of Minorca was more shameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the public outcry was such, that the king gave up Byng to public justice, and he was shot to death at Portsmouth for cowardice.

It was about this time that Mr Pitt was placed, as secretary of state, at the head of the administration. He had been long known to be a bold speaker, and he soon proved himself to be as spirited a minister. The miscarriages in the Mediterranean had no consequence but the loss of fort St Philip, which was more than repaired by the vast successes of the English privateers, both in Europe and America. The successes of the English in the East Indies, under colonel Clive, are almost incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Baha, and Orixia, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient seat of the new nabobs of those provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French interest, was, a few days after his being defeated, taken

by

by the new nabob Jaffer Ally Cawn's son, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the present amazing extent of riches and territory which the English now possess in the East-Indies.

Mr Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new system of operations against France, than which nothing could be better calculated to restore the spirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invasion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itself, and the descent was to be made at Rochefort, under general Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land-troops. Nothing could be more promising than the dispositions for this expedition. It sailed on the 8th of September 1757, and admiral Hawke brought both the sea and land-forces back on the 6th of October to St Helen's, without the general making an attempt to land on the coast of France. He was tried and acquitted without the public murmuring, so great an opinion had the people of the minister, who, to do him justice, did not suffer a man or a ship belonging to the English army or navy to lye idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a most powerful army, merely because his Britannic majesty refused to wink at their encroachments in America, the English parliament, in gratitude, voted large supplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been sent thither to command an army of observation, but he had been so powerfully pressed by a superior army, that he found himself obliged to lay down his arms, and the French, under the duke of Richelieu, took possession of that electorate, and its capital. At this time, a scarcity next to a famine raged in England; and the Hessian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been sent to defend the kingdom from an invasion intended by the French, remained still in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758 a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majesty and the king of Prussia; in consequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000*l.* to his Prussian majesty; and also voted large sums, amounting in the whole to near two millions a-year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbittel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards so burdensome to England, was intended to unite the protestant interest in Germany.

George II. with the consent of his Prussian majesty, pretending that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Closterseven, ordered his Hanoverian subjects to resume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, a Prussian general, who instantly drove them out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the English had repeatedly insulted the French coasts, by destroying their stores and shipping at St Maloes and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. A sharp war ensued. The English every where performed wonders, and according to the accounts published in the London Gazette, they were every where victorious, but nothing decisive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the most glorious, perhaps, in the English annals, in which about 7000 English defeated 80,000 of

the French regular troops in fair battle, contributed nothing to the conclusion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The English bore the expence of the war with chearfulness, and applauded Mr Pitt's administration, because their glorious successes in every other part of the globe demonstrated that he was in earnest. Admiral Boscawen and General Amherst, in August 1758, reduced and demolished Louisbourg, in North-America, which had been restored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the scourge of the British trade, and took five or six French ships of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Quesne, in the same quarter, fell also into the hands of the English: acquisitions that far overbalanced a check which the English received at Ticonderago, and the loss of about 300 of the English guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coast of France.

The English affairs in the East-Indies this year proved equally fortunate, and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pocock engaged the French fleet near Fort St David's, on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the *Bien Aime*, of 74 guns, was so much damaged that they run her on shore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded, on this occasion, and the English only 29 killed, and 89 wounded. That on the 3d of August following, he engaged the French fleet a second time, near Pondicherry; when, after a brisk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the sail they could make, and got safe into the road of Pondicherry. The loss of the French in this engagement was 540 killed and wounded; and that of the English only 147 killed and wounded. And that on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in those parts, marched to besiege Madras, which was defended by the English colonels Laurance and Draper; and after a brisk cannonade, which lasted till the 16th of February following, the English having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raise the siege and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the island of Goree, on the coast of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved successful. One of them was against the French islands in the West-Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The second expedition was against Quebec, the capital of the French Canada. The command was given, by the minister's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was opposed with far superior forces by Moncalm, the best and most successful general the French had. Though the situation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a descent of the English, were deemed impregnable, yet Moncalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounting incredible difficulties, he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himself killed; and general Monckton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and

and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reserved for brigadier general (now lord viscount) Townsend.

General Amherst, who was the first English general on command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St Laurence. It is to the honour of the minister that Mr Amherst in this expedition was so well provided with every thing that could make it successful, that there scarcely appeared any chance for its miscarriage, and thus the French empire in North America became subject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now desperate, and their credit ruined, they resolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invasion of Great Britain: but, on the 18th of August, 1759, admiral Boscawen attacked the Toulon squadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the straits of Gibraltar, took *Le Centaur* of 74, *Le Temeraire* of 74, and *Le Modeste* of 74 guns; and burnt *Le Ocean* of 80, and *Le Redoubtable* of 74 guns. The rest of the fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line, and three frigates, made their escape in the night. And on November 20, Sir Edward Hawke defeated the Brest fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the island of Dumet, in the bay of Biscay. The *Formidable*, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the *Thesee* of 74, and the *Superbe* of 70 guns, were sunk; and the *Soleil Royal* of 80, and the *Heros* of 74, were burnt. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villain, by throwing their guns over-board; and the rest of the fleet, consisting of five ships of the line, and three frigates, escaped in the night. The English lost, on this occasion, upon the shoals of the coast, the *Essex* of 64, and the *Resolution* of 74 guns. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invasion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had with three sloops of war alarmed the coasts of Scotland, and actually made a descent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed, by captain Elliot, who was the commodore of three ships, inferior in force to the Frenchman's squadron. Every day's Gazette added to the accounts of the successes of the English, and the utter ruin of the French finances, which that government did not blush publicly to avow. In short, Great Britain now reigned as sole mistress of the main, and had succeeded in every measure that had been projected for her own safety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued still as undecisive as it was expensive, and many in England began to consider it now as foreign to the internal interests of Great Britain. The French again and again shewed dispositions for treating; and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little less than eighteen millions sterling yearly, inclined the British ministry to listen to their proposals. A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but, on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died suddenly, full of years and glory, in the 77th of his age, and 33d of his reign, and was suc-

ceeded by his grandson, now George III, eldest son to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehensible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could separate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions, and he was sometimes ill enough advised to declare so much in his speeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was just rather than generous, and in matters of œconomy, either in his state or his household, he was willing to connive at abuses, if they had the sanction of law and custom. By this means those mismanagements about his court were multiplied to an enormous degree, and even under-clerks in offices amassed fortunes ten times greater than their legal salaries or perquisites could raise. He was not very accessible to conversation, and therefore it was no wonder, that having left Germany after he had attained to man's estate, he still retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with Sir Robert Walpole's administration with great indifference, and shewed very little concern at the subsequent revolutions among his servants. This quality may be deemed a virtue, as it contributed greatly to the internal quiet of his reign, and prevented the people from loading the king with the faults of his ministers. In his personal disposition he was passionate, but placable, fearless of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he served when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary course of justice; and though his reign was distracted by party, the courts of justice were never better filled than under him: this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

The brighter the national glory was at the time of George II's death, the more arduous was the province of his successor, George III. Born and bred in England, he had no prepossessions but for his native country, and an excellent education gave him true notions of its interests, therefore he was not to be imposed upon by flattering appearances. He knew, that neither the finances nor the population of England, could furnish men and money for supplying the necessities of the war, successful as it was, and yet he was obliged to continue it, so as to bring it to a happy period. He chose for his first minister the earl of Bute, whom he had known ever since he began to know himself, and among the first acts of his reign was to convince the public that the death of his predecessor should not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the island of Belleisle, on the coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces under Commodore Keppel and general Hodgson; as did the important fortress of Pondicherry in the East-Indies to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations against the French West-Indies still continued under general Monckton, lord Rollo, and Sir James Dowglas; and in 1762, the island of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the islands of Grenada, Grenadillas, St Vincent, and others of less note, were subdued by the British arms, with inconceivable rapidity.

By this time the famous family-compact among all the branches of the Bourbon family had been concluded, that it was found necessary to declare war against Spain, who, having been hitherto no principals in the quarrel, had scandalously abused their neutrality in favour of the French. A respectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pocock, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land-forces, and the vitals of the Spanish monarchy were struck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the strongest and most important fort which his Catholic Majesty held in the West-Indies. The capture of the *Hermione*, a large Spanish register ship, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million sterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treasure passed in triumph through Westminster to the Bank the very hour he was born. The loss of the Havannah, with the ships and treasures there taken from the Spaniards, was succeeded by the reduction of Manila in the East-Indies, by general Draper and admiral Cornish, with the capture of the *Trinidad*, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract those dreadful blows given to the family-compact, the French and Spaniards opened their last resource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the British arms. This quarrel embarrassed his Britannic majesty, who was obliged to send thither armaments both by sea and land; but these found no great difficulty in checking the progress of the Spaniards.

The negotiations for peace were now resumed, and the necessity of concluding one was acknowledged by all his majesty's ministers and privy counsellors excepting two. Many difficulties were surmounted, but the war in Germany, equally useless and expensive, was continued between the French and English with greater fury than ever. The enemy, however, at last granted such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate to the occasion. A cessation of arms took place in Germany, and in all other quarters, and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was solemnly proclaimed at the usual places in Westminster and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met with the approbation of a majority of both houses.

By this treaty, the extensive province of Canada, with the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St John, were confirmed to Great Britain; also the two Floridas, with the whole of the continent of North America, on this side the Mississippi, except the town of New Orleans, and a small district round it, was surrendered to us by France and Spain, in consideration of our restoring to Spain the island of Cuba; and to France the islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Desirade; and in consideration of our granting the French the two small islands of St Pierre and Miquelon, on the coast of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretensions to the neutral island of St Lucia, they yielded to us the islands of Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitted their pretensions to the neutral islands

islands of St Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the settlement of Senegal, by which we engross the whole gum trade of that country; but we returned Goree, a small island of little value. The article that relates to the East-Indies was dictated by the directors of the English company, which restores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they shall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal. And the city of Manilla was restored to the Spaniards; but they granted to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewise, the French restored to us the island of Minorca, and we restored to them the island of Belleisle. In Germany, after six years spent in marches and counter-marches, numerous skirmishes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but, at the expence of thirty millions sterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual restitution and oblivion should take place, and each party sit down at the end of the war in the same situation in which they began it. And peace was restored between Portugal and Spain, both sides to be upon the same footing as before the war.

Thus ended a war (such were the effects of unanimity at home) the most brilliant in the English annals. No national prejudices, nor party disputes then existed. The same truly British spirit by which the minister was animated, fired the breast of the soldier and seaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages, and the monied man, pleased with the aspect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the minister, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purse. The incredible sums of eighteen, nineteen, and twenty-two millions, subscribed by a few citizens of London, upon a short notice, for the service of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, was no less astonishing to Europe, than the success which attended the British fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe.

As for the unhappy divisions at home, which commenced since the conclusion of the peace, and are by many thought to have a considerable share in producing the present American war, they shall be taken notice of when we come to treat of America, when we shall endeavour to trace that lamentable event to its source.

W A L L E S:

Name and Language.] **T**HE Welch are descendents, according to the best antiquaries, of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Caesar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Wallis (the G and W being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons) that is, Strangers. Their language has a strong affinity

finity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and descriptive powers by those who understand it.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britains, were shut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat Westward. It does not, however, appear that the Saxons ever made any further conquests in their country, than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits. See England.

Face of the Country and Produce.] It is very mountainous, and yet a very plentiful country; they serve Bristol and other great towns in England with provisions; in their hills they have rich lead mines and great plenty of coals, with quarries of free stone; and it is watered by many rivers.

Mountains.] The mountains in this country are reckoned equal in height, if not higher than any in Britain. Snowdon has been accurately measured, and found to be near 1300 yards in height.

Character.] They are a brave hospitable people, and were never conquered by the Saxons. Their last prince, Llewellyn ap Griffith, lost his life in defence of his country, when Edward I. made a conquest of it in the year 1282. And that prince, observing how fond this people were of being governed by their native princes, so ordered it, that the queen was brought to bed at Caernarvon of a prince, who was baptized by the name of Edward, and succeeded to the crown of England, by the name of Edward II.; the king's eldest son being ever since stiled Prince of Wales, and a large revenue out of that country appropriated to that principality.

Religion. Their religion is the same with that of England; the gentry and middling people conform to the manners of the English, and speak their language in the greatest part of Wales.

Incorporated with England.] Wales was incorporated with England by act of parliament in the year 1536, in the reign of Henry VIII.; and they send twenty-four members to the British House of Commons, as has been already mentioned.

Arms.] The arms of the prince of Wales are the same as those of England, with the addition of a label of three points, and a coronet adorned with three ostrich feathers, with the following inscription, viz. *Ich Dien.* I serve.

Curiosities.] Among the curiosities in this country are reckoned several Roman altars that have been dug with inscriptions on them, giving some light into the superstition of that people: and in Flintshire is a well called Holywell, from the superstition of the modern Romanists,

Romanists, who ascribe numerous miracles to those waters; and there are still some remains of the wall made by Offa, king of the Mercians, in Denbighshire, to defend his country against the Britons. This line of intrenchment, called Offa's dyke, ran thro' Herefordshire, Shropshire, Montgomeryshire Denbighshire, and Flintshire.

A round tower of a castle, in Glamorganshire, has one half in ruins and the remaining half leans so, that the top overhangs the base above nine feet, and is equally curious with the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

The Welch had anciently among them an order of men called bards; who composed songs relating the actions of their princes and illustrious men; the last of these bards, Thaliessen, lived about the middle of the 5th century, and many of his verses are said to be extant, in the libraries of Sir Watkin William Wynn, and of the late William Jones, Esqr.; Geoffrey of Monmouth, having, it is supposed, composed his fabulous history of England from the writings of these bards, has brought their relations into discredit. However, there are learned men who assert, that many notable pieces of history are to be deduced from the present remains of the bards.

Wales has produced many learned men, in the several parts of literature; and, indeed, their genius may be put on a level with that of the best of their neighbours.

Language.] The Pater-noster of the ancient British, or present Welch, is as follows: *Ein tad yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd; funsteiddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; gwmeleu dy ewylllys megis yn y nef felly ar y ddaiair belyd; dyro ini heddyw ein barra beunyddiol; amadden ini i ain dyledion fel y maddenwn ninnau in dyled wyr; ac nac arwain ini brofediagaeth iithr gwared ni rhag draug; cannys eiddot ti yw'r, deyrnas, a'r nerth, a'r gogoniant, ryn oes oesoedd. Amen.*

ISLANDS of SCOTLAND.

Situation and Extent.] **T**HE islands of Shetland lye North-East of the Orcades, between 60 and 61 degrees of North latitude; and are part of the shire of Orkney.

The Orcades, or Orkney islands, lye North of Dungsbyhead, between 59 and 60 degrees of North latitude; divided from the continent by Pentland Firth.

The Hebrides, or Western isles, are very numerous, and some of them large; situated between 55 and 59 degrees of North latitude.

Climate.] There is very little difference in the climate of those islands, the air being keen, piercing, and salubrious; so that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney islands, they see to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the

the Summer months, they have frequent communications both for business and curiosity with each other, and with the continent; the rest of the year, however, they are almost inaccessible, thro' fogs, darkness, and storms.

Chief Islands and Towns.] The largest of the Shetland islands, which are forty-six in number, (though many of them are uninhabited,) is Mainland, which is sixty miles in length, and twenty in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the island not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a castle are still to be seen, and is the seat of a Presbytery. On this island the Dutch begin to fish for herrings at midsummer, and their fishing season lasts six months.

The largest of the Orkney islands, which are about thirty in number, (though several of them are unpeopled) is called Pomona: Its length is twenty-four miles, and its breadth, in some places, nine. It contains nine parish churches, and four excellent harbours.

The isle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and, in some places, almost as broad. It contains two parishes, and a castle, called Duart, which is the chief place on the island. The other principal Western islands are, Lewis, or Harries, (for they both form but one island,) which belongs to the shire of Ross, and is 100 miles in length, and thirteen or fourteen in breadth. Sky, belonging to the shire of Inverness, is forty miles long, and, in some places, thirty broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the castle of Rothsay, which gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothsay, is likewise a royal burgh; and the islands of Bute and Arran form the shire of Bute. Near Bute lye the islands of Big and Little Combrays, about half a league distant from each other; the former contains about 200 families, the latter only eight, with the remains of an old castle, destroyed by Oliver Cromwell, and the ruins of a monastery: there is a light-house kept on this island. The isles of Ila and Jura are part of Argyleshire, but they have no towns worthy notice. North Uist contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring fishing. The other Hebrides islands, are at present of small importance, either to the public or the proprietors; though, probably, they may, in future times, be of great consequence to both, by the very improveable fisheries upon their coasts. We cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous isle of Iona, once the seat and sanctuary of Western learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is still famous for its reliques of sanctimonious antiquity, as shall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to describe the island of St Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reason but because it is the remotest of all the North-West islands, and very difficult of access; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are protestants, and know very little of the value of money.

Inhabitants, Customs, Population, Language, and Religion.] The isles of Shetland and Orkney were formerly subject to the crown of Denmark,

mark, who pledged them, and in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland. They form a stewartry, or shire, which sends a member to parliament. At present, the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland, only, perhaps they are more religious. Men of fortune there have improved their estates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families all the luxuries and elegancies that are to be found at the tables of their English and Scots neighbours. They build their dwelling and other houses in the most fashionable taste, and are remarkable for the fineness of their linen: as to the common people, they live upon butter, cheese, fish, sea and land fowl, (of which they have great plenty,) particularly geese; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, so as to give it a vinous quality. In some of the Northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their vast intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney islands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians, in seizing the nests of sea-fowls, who build in the most frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preserves them from many diseases known to luxury. They cure the scurvy and the jaundice, to which they are subject, with the powder of snail-shells, and scurvy-grass, of which they have plenty. Their religion is protestant, according to the discipline of the church of Scotland, and their civil institutions are much the same with those of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned as to the population of those three divisions of islands. We have the most undoubted evidences of history, that, about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now; for the Hebrides themselves were known often to send 10,000 into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture: at present, their numbers are said not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed, and live like the Scots Highlanders. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; but with this difference, that as the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands, perhaps the descendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebrides.

Those islands alone retain the ancient usages of the Celts, as described by the oldest and best authors; but with a strong tincture of the feudal constitution. Their shanachies, or story-tellers, supply the place of the ancient bards, so famous in history; and are the historians, or rather the genealogists, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewise attended, when he appears abroad, with his musician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dressed in the manner of, but more sumptuously than, the English minstrels of former times*. Notwithstanding the contempt into which that music is fallen, it is almost incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among those islanders, so late as the beginning of the present century. They had regular colleges and professors, and the students took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the

Celtic

* See Percy's Reliques of ancient English Poetry, in 3 vols.

Celtic rites, some of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now abolished. The inhabitants, however, still preserve the most profound respect and affection for their several chieftains, notwithstanding all the pains that have been taken by the British legislature to break those connections, which experience has shewn to be so dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders, though they certainly fare better, for they have oat-meal, plenty of fish and fowl, cheese, butter-milk, and whey; and, when they chuse it, plenty of mutton, beef, goat, kid, and venison. They indulge themselves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn, which is an enemy to industry, and indeed to domestic and personal cleanliness. The agility of both sexes in the exercises of the field, and in dancing to their favourite music, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this subject, should omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which distinguish some of the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of the *second sight*. It would be equally absurd to attempt to disprove the reality of the instances of this kind that have been brought by creditable authors, as to admit all that has been said upon the subject. The adepts of the second sight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations, either real or typically, which swim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compass of twenty-four or forty-eight hours. We do not, however, from the best information, observe that any two of these adepts agree as to the manners and forms of those revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides being the most Westerly islands where the Celts settled, their language must remain there in its greatest purity. This opinion, though very plausible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as customs, are there found; but a vast intercourse which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other Northern people, whose language is mixed with the Slavonian and Teutonic, which last has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; so that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which was spoken by their neighbours in Lochaber, and the opposite coasts of Scotland, the undoubted descendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion professed in the Hebrides is chiefly presbyterian, as established in the church of Scotland; but popery and ignorance still prevail among some of the islanders, whilst superstitious practices and customs seem to be almost grafted in their nature.

Soil, Mines, and Quarries. Though it is not in the power of natural philosophy to account for the reason, yet it is certain that the soil both of the Northern and Western islands belonging to Scotland, has suffered an amazing alteration. It is evident to the eye-sight, that many of those islands have been the habitations of the Druids, whose temples are still visible in most of them; and those temples

were surrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The stumps of former trees, however, are discernible, as are many vestiges of grandeur, even since the admission of the Christian religion; which prove the decrease of the riches, power, and population, of the inhabitants. Experience daily shews, that if the soil of the Northern and Western islands till of late were barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for such spots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden stuff, more than sufficient for the inhabitants, and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and silver-mines; marl, slate, free-stone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon those islands: They are not destitute of fine fresh water, and lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the same time it must be owned, that the present face of the soil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

Trade and Manufactures.] These are all in their infancy in those islands. Their staple commodities consist of fish, especially herrings, which are the best in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to those of the Dutch. They carry on likewise a considerable trade in down and feathers; and their sheep affords them wool, which they manufacture into coarse cloaths; and even the linen manufacture makes no small progress in those islands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are disposed of in sale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they salt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and industry, with some portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render those islands at once ornamental and beneficial to their mother country, as well as to their inhabitants.

Beasts, Birds, and Fishes.] Little can be said on this head, that is peculiar to those islands. In the countries already described, mention has been made of most of the birds and fishes that have been discovered here; only it is thought that they contain a species of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elsewhere. The Shetland isles are famous for a small breed of horses, which are incredibly active, strong, and hardy, and frequently seen in the streets of London, yoked to the splendid carriages of the curious or wealthy. The coasts of those islands, till within these thirty years, seemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for strangers. The latter furnished the former with wines, strong liquors, spice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. but it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. In the Shetland isles 3000 buffes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fishery, besides those fitted out by the Humburghers, Bremeners, and other Northern ports.

Rarities and Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] Those islands exhibit many pregnant proofs in their churches, the villages of old
forts,

forts, and other buildings both sacred and civil, of their having been formerly more populous than they are now. The use and construction of some of those works are not easily accounted for at present. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the Western islands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a stone called a dwarf-stone, thirty-six feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same sort for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, big enough for two men to lye on; at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endless to recount the various vestiges of the druidical temples remaining on those islands, some of which have required prodigious labour, and are stupendous erections, of the same nature as the famous Stonehenge near Salisbury; others seem to be memorials of particular persons, or actions, consisting of one large stone standing upright; some of them have been sculptured, and others have served as sepulchres, and are composed of stones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in those islands; and there are many monuments of Danish and Norwegian fortifications. The gigantic bones found in many burial-places here, give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of far larger size than the present. It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine silver fibulæ or clasps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with those parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by fourteen pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stones, embossed, and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland isles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purposes. But the most remarkable of all these antiquities are to be found on the celebrated isle of Iona, called St Columb-Kill. We shall not enter into the history or origin of the religious erections upon this island; it is sufficient to say, that it seems to have served as a sanctuary for St Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were desolated by barbarism. It appears that the Northern Pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the sanctity of the place. The church of St Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of some Scots, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaelic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninscribed. The steeple is large, the cupola 21 feet square, the doors and windows are curiously carved, and the altar is of the finest marble. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies that are discernible upon this island, and give countenance to the well-known observation, that when learning was extinct in

in the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in those islands.

The islands belonging to Scotland contain likewise some natural curiosities peculiar to themselves; the Phaseoli, or Mollusca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as is supposed, from the West-Indies, by the Westerly winds, which often force ashore many curious shells, and marine productions, highly esteemed by naturalists. In the parish of Harn, a large piece of stag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce surprising phenomena, which the natives believe to be supernatural.

*Learning, learned Men,
and History.* }

See Scotland.

S C O T L A N D.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 300 } between { 54 and 59 North latitude.
Breadth 150 } 1 and 6 West longitude.

Name.] THERE can be little doubt that the Scots were not the original inhabitants of this kingdom, which they invaded about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and that the word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scyth, or Scythian, being originally from that immense country called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Escotia; by the French Esecosse; by the Scots, Germans, and English, Scotland.

Boundaries.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 miles, is bounded on the North, East, and West, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Irish seas, or, more properly, the Atlantic ocean; and on the South by England; for which, however, it has no natural boundary, if we except the Solway firth near Carlisle, on the West, and the mouth of the Tweed at Berwick, on the East. Anciently, in the time of the Romans, it extended much further; being bounded by a wall, raised by that people, between Newcastle and Carlisle; and under the Norman kings of England, it included the three Northern counties of Northumberland, Westmoreland, and Cumberland.

Divisions and Subdivisions.] Scotland is divided into the counties South of the Firth of Forth; the capital of which, and of all the kingdom,

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kingdom, is Edinburgh; and those to the North of the same river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national division; but some modern writers, with less geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and customs of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or shires, are allotted to the Southern division, and fifteen to the Northern; and those counties are subdivided into sheriffdoms, stewartries, bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh, .	{ Mid-Lothian, }	{ E D I N B U R G H, N. lat. 56. W. lon. 3. Musselburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington, .	{ East-Lothian, }	{ Dunbar, Haddington, and North-Berwick.
3. Merse, ancient- ly Berwick, *	{ The Merches, and Lauderdale, . . }	{ Duns, and Lauder.
4. Roxborough, .	{ Tiviotdale, Lidfdale, Eskdale and Eufdale, }	{ Jedburgh, Kelso, and Melrose.
5. Selkirk, . . .	{ Ettrick Forest, }	{ Selkirk.
6. Peebles, . . .	{ Tweeddale, }	{ Peebles.
7. Lanerk, . . .	{ Clydfdale, }	{ Glasgow, N. lat. 55. 52. W. lon. 4-5. Ha- milton, Lanerk, and Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries . .	{ Nithfdade, Annandale, }	{ Dumfries, Annand.
9. Wigtown, . .	{ Galloway, West Part, }	{ Wigtown, Stanraer, & Whitehorn.
10. Kirkcud- bright,	{ Galloway, East Part, }	{ Kirkcudbright.
11. Air,	{ Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham, . . . }	{ Air, Kilmarnock, Ir- win, Maybole, Stew- arton, and Saltcots.
12. Dumbarton, .	{ Lenox, }	{ Dumbarton.
13. Bute, and	{ Bute, Arran, and	{ Rothsay.
14. Caithness, . .	{ Caithness, . . . }	{ Wick, N. lat. 58. 40. and Thurso.
15. Renfrew, . .	{ Renfrew, }	{ Renfrew, Paisley, Gree- nock, and Port-Glas- gow.
16. Stirling, . .	{ Stirling, }	{ Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow, .	{ West-Lothian, . . . }	{ Linlithgow, Burrow- stounness, and Queens- ferry.
		18. Argyle

* Berwick, on the North side of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itself, in a political sense distinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
18. Argyle, . .	{ Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kingaire, and Lorn, with part of the Western Isles, particularly Isla, Jura, Mull, Uist, Terif, Col, and Lismore, }	{ Inverary, Dunstaffnag, Killonmer, and Cambletown. }
19. Perth, . . .	{ Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Glenshield, and Raynork, }	{ Perth, Scone, Dumbane, Blair, and Dunkeld. }
20. Clackmanan & 21. Kinross, . .	{ Fife Part, }	{ Culrofs, Clackmanan, Alloway & Kinross. }
22. Fife,	{ Fife, }	{ St Andrews, Cupar, Falkland, Kirkcaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt-Island, Dunfermlin, Dysart, Anstruther, and Aberdeen. }
23. Forfar, . .	{ Forfar, & Angus, . . }	{ Montrose, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroath, and Brechin. }
24. Kinkardin, .	{ Merns, }	{ Bervie, Stonhive, and Kinkardin. }
25. Aberdeen, .	{ Mar, Buchan, Garioch and Strathbogie, . }	{ Old Aberdeen, N. lat. 57-22. W. lon. 1-40. New Aberdeen, Frasersburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Inverurie, Strathbogie, and Old Meldrum. }
26. Bamff, . . .	{ Bamff, Strathdobern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan. }	{ Bamff and Cullen. }
27. Elgin, . . .	Murray and Strathspey,	Elgin and Forres.
28. Nairne and 29. Cromartie, .	{ Western Part of Murray and Cromartie, }	{ Nairn, Cromartie. }
30. Inverness, .	{ Aird, Strathglafs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, & Glenmorison, }	{ Inverness, Inverlochy, Fort Augustus, Beauleu. }

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
31. Ross,	Easter and Wester Ross, Isle of Lewis, Loch- broom, Lochcarran, Ardmeanach, Red- castle, Ferrintosh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonale,	Taine, Dingwall, Fortrose, Rosemar- kie, and New Kelfo.
32. Sutherland,	Strathnaver and Su- therland,	Strathy and Dornoch.
33. Orkney,	Isles of Orkney and Shetland,	Kirkwall, N. lat. 59-45. W. long, 3. Scalloway, near the Meridian of Lon- don, N. lat. 61.

In all, thirty-three shires; which chuse thirty representatives to sit in the parliament of Great Britain; Bute and Caithness chusing alternately, as do Nairn and Cromartie, and Clackmannan and Kinross.

The royal Boroughs which chuse representatives are,

Edinburgh,	1	Crail, Kilrenny, Anstruther	
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tayne,	1	East and West, and Pit- tentween,	1
Fortrose, Inverness, Nairne, and Forres,	1	Dysart, Kirkaldy, King- horn, and Burnt-Island,	1
Elgin, Callen, Balmf, In- verury and Kintore,	1	Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queen's-ferry, Culrofs,	1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Mon- trose, Aberbrothe, and Breachin,	1	and Stirling,	
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cu- per, and St Andrews,	1	Glasgow, Renfrew, Ruther- glen, and Dumbarton,	1
Selkirk, Peebles, Linlith- gow, and Lanerk,	1	Haddington, Dunbar, North-Berwick, Law- der, and Jedburgh,	1
Dumfries, Sanquhar, An- nan, Lochmaben, and Kirkudbright,	1	Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn	1
		Air, Irwin, Rothfay, Cam- bletown, and Inverary,	1

Mountains.] The chief mountains of Scotland are the Grampian mountains, which run from East to West, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire; almost the whole breadth of the kingdom, famous for the battle fought near them, between the Romans and the ancient Scots, or Caledonians, under the conduct of Calgacus.

A remarkable chain of mountains are those of Lammermoor, which run from the Eastern coast in the Merse, a great way West. Next to these are Pentland hills, which run through Lothian, and join the mountains of Tweeddale; and these again are joined by others, which traverse the whole breadth of Scotland. Other remarkable mountains are those called Cliviot, or Piviot Hills, on the borders of England, Drumbender-law and North-Berwick-law, both in East-Lothian;

Lothian; Arthur's Seat in Mid-Lothian, Cairnapple, in West-Lothian; Tentock, in Clydesdale; Binmore, in Argyle; the Ochel mountains, and Largo-law, in Fyfe; in Angus, Dundee-law, and part of the Grampians; in Caithness, Ord; and in the Orkney islands, the mountains of Hoy.

Rivers.] The chief rivers are Forth, Clyde, and Tay. Forth was called Botodria anciently, and is the largest river in Scotland; it rises near the bottom of Lomond-hill, and runs from West to East, discharging itself into the Frith of Forth. Tay, the next largest river, issues out of Loch-tay, in Brodalbin, and, running South East, falls into the sea at Dundee. Spey the next most considerable river, issues from a lake of the same name, and running from South-West to North-East, falls into the German sea. The rivers Don and Dee run from West to East, and fall into the German sea near Aberdeen.

The river Clyde runs generally from East to West, by Hamilton and Glasgow, and falls into the Irish sea; from whence their greatest foreign traffic is carried on to America, and other distant countries.

The rivers Murray, Cromarty, and Dornock, rise from so many lakes of the same name in the North of Scotland, and running from West to East, discharge themselves into the German sea.

Lakes.] The lakes or lochs of most note are those of Loch-tay, Loch-nefs, and Loch-leven, from whence issue rivers of the same name; from Loch-lomendel issued the river Domond, and from Loch-jern the river Jern. It is observed, that the lochs Tay, Nefs, and Jern, never freeze; and there is a lake in Shaglassh which continues frozen all the summer.

Air.] From the Northerly situation, and the mountainous surface of this country, the air is very cold, but much colder on the mountains or highlands, (which is covered with snow great part of the year,) than in the vallies, and much colder in the North than in the South. But if the air be colder in Scotland than in England, the natives comfort themselves with an opinion, that it is clearer and more healthful, being purged by frequent winds and storms; which contribute, they imagine, to the brightness of their parts as well as health. They also imagine they resemble the French in their vivacity and enterprising genius.

Forests.] The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninhabited, presents us with the most uncontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepest mosses, or morasses, contain large logs of wood; and their waters, being impregnated with turpentine, have a preserving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been discovered in those mosses. The *Sylva Caledonia*, or Caledonian forest, the remains of which are now thought to be Erick wood, in the South of Scotland, famous in antiquity for its being the harbour of the Caledonian wild boars; but such an animal is not now to be seen in Scotland. Several woods, however, still remain in that country, and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the use of furnaces and founderies;

founderies; but lying at a great distance from water-carriage, tho' the work succeeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir-trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scots oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach twenty or thirty miles in length, and four or five in breadth, but through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

Metals and Minerals.] Though Scotland does not at present boast of its gold mines, yet it is certain, that it contains such, or at least that Scotland afforded a considerable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-moor; and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scots gold, were presented to the guests by way of desert. Some small pieces of gold have been found in those parts washed down by the floods. It likewise appears by the public records, that those beautiful coins struck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the same metal.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are said to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of silver; but we know of no silver mines that are worked at present. Some copper mines have been found near Edinburgh. Lime-stone is there in great plenty, as is free-stone; so that the houses of the better sort are constructed of the most beautiful materials.

Lapis-lazuli is said to be dug up in Lanerkshire; allum-mines have been found in Bamfshire; chrytal, variegated pebbles, and other transparent stones, which admit of the finest polish for seals, are found in many parts of Scotland; as are tale, flint, sea-shells, potters-clay, and fullers earth. The stones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they assign a supernatural origin and use, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made use of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to taste the sweets, in their foundaries and other metalline manufactures.

Vegetable and Animal Productions, by Sea and Land.] The soil of Scotland in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and pasturage. In the Southern counties, the finest garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, fall little, if at all, short of those in England; and the same may be said of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of salubrious and pleasant tasted berries; though, it must be owned, that many extensive tracts are covered with a strong heath. The sea-coast produces the alga-marina, dulce, or dulish, a most wholesome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants.

The fishes on the coasts of Scotland are much the same with those of the Islands and counties already described, but the Scots have improved

proved in their fisheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture; for societies have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and bids fair to emulate, if not to excel, the Dutch themselves, in curing, as well as catching, their fish. In former times, the Scots seldom ventured to fish above a league's distance from the land, but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and successfully as any of their neighbours.

The country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domestic animals that are not common among their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares, and all other animals for game, are plentiful, as are the grouse and heath-cock, which is a most delicious bird; there likewise are the capperkail, and the tarmacan, which is of the pheasant kind; but those birds are scarce even in the Highlands, and when discovered are very shy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the South, are almost incredible, and formerly brought large sums into the country; the black cattle especially, which, when fattened on the Southern pastures, are reckoned superior to English beef.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scots horses, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent; but the truth is, notwithstanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and soil of Scotland were unfavourable to that noble animal, for they diminished both in size and spirit; so that about the time of the union, few horses, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce the English and foreign breeds, and much pains have been taken for providing them with proper foods and management, but with what success time alone can discover.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, and Customs.] The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of souls. This calculation rests merely upon vague conjecture, as no attempt has been made to support even its probability. If we form an estimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted, that some public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their several parishes. The only records at present that can be appealed to, are those of the army; and, by the best informations, they make the number of soldiers furnished by Scotland in the late war, which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to observe, that above 60,000 of these were raised in the Islands and Highlands, which form by far the least populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions and a half, as no country in the world, exclusive of the army, sends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we consult the most ancient and creditable histories, the population of Scotland, in the 13th century, must have been extensive, as it afforded so many thousands

sands to fall by the sword of the English, without any sensible decrease of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of characteristical feature, that of high cheek-bones, reigns in their faces; lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring spirit was chiefly owing to their laws of succession, which invested the elder brother as head of the family with the inheritance, and left but a very scanty portion for the other sons. This obliged the latter to seek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affections for their native soil than the Scots have in general.

It remains perhaps a question, whether that lettered education, for which the Scots were noted by the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmost service to many of its natives. Their literature, however slight, rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners; but, at the same time, it drained their nation of that order of men, who are the best fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the public emolument.

With regard to gentlemen who live at home, upon estates of 300*l.* a-year, and upwards, they differ little or nothing, in their manners, and stile of living, from their English neighbours of the like fortunes.

The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their superiors, and live within the bounds of the most rigid economy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions, and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices occur at present in Scotland. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprise; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity and resolution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations, arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies, witness that which put Porteous to death, in 1735, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people; and, tho' the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 500*l.* annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders, of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young Pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed were it not well attested.

They affect a fondness for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond, perhaps, any people in the world; but this attachment is seldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or disgusting, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of the ancient Scots dishes, such as the hoggice, the sheep's-head singed, the fish in sauce, the chicken broth, hotch-potch, and minced collops. These dishes, in their original dressing, were favourite and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scots cookery have rendered them agreeable to the most delicate palates. The common use of
oat-meal

oat-meal, undoubtedly, gave a hardness to the features of the vulgar of both sexes, besides some other disagreeable consequences it was attended with; but these unfavourable characteristics will wear out by the introduction of wheaten bread, which now abounds in Scotland. The excessive use of oat-meal accounts for the common observation, that the faces of the lower women in Scotland are commonly very coarse; but it was owned, at the same time, that among the higher rank of females, beauty was found in its utmost perfection. The reverse has been remarked of a neighbouring nation.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scots tunes is relished by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the subject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the English stage with variations, under new names, but with this disadvantage, that though rendered more conformable to the rules of music, they are mostly altered for the worse, being stripped of that original simplicity, which, however irregular, is their most essential characteristic, which is so agreeable to the ear, and has such powers over the human breast. Those of a more lively and merry strain had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dress, by the fife, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited. It has been ridiculously supposed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian secretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scots music. This is a falsehood invented by his countrymen in envy to the Scots. Their finest tunes existed long before Rizzio's arrival, in their church music; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was entirely employed by his mistress in foreign dispatches, ever composed an air during the short time he lived in Scotland; but, were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the music itself is sufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not so much accustomed as the English are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reason, they seem to enjoy them more completely. One institution there is, at once social and charitable, and that is, the contributions raised for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank; but though the company consists promiscuously of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each guest pays according to his inclination or ability, but seldom under a shilling a head, for which they have a wedding-dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be servants in respectable families, the contributions are so liberal, that they often establish the young couple in the world.

A few of the common people of Scotland still retain the solemn decent manner of their ancestors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the parish-beadle is sent round with a passing bell; but he stops at certain places, and, with a slow melancholy tone, announces the name of the party deceased, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceased was beloved in the place, vast numbers attend. The procession is sometimes preceded by the magistrates and their officers, and the deceased is carried in his coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chair-poles, to the grave; where it is interred without any farther ceremony,

ceremony, than the nearest relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the same manner as in England, but without the burial service. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called coronachs, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both sexes.

Dancing is a favourite amusement of this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness; the whole consists in agility and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. One of the peculiar diversions practised by the gentlemen is the Golf, which requires an equal degree of art and strength: it is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is smaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper construction, till it terminates in the part that strikes the ball, which is loaded with lead, and faced with horn. The diversion itself resembles that of the Mall, which was common in England in the middle of the last century. An expert player will send the ball an amazing distance at one stroke; and each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who strikes it in fewest strokes into a hole wins the game. The diversion of curling is likewise peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat stones, often from 20 to 200 pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common stand, to a mark at a certain distance; and whoever is nearest the mark is the victor. These two may be called the standing Summer and Winter diversions of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diversions common in England, the cricket excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen look upon it as too athletic and mechanical.

[*Language and Dress.*] These two articles are placed under the same head, because they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is composed of a woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This stuff consists of various colours, forming stripes which cross each other at right angles; and the natives value themselves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call sets, of those stripes and colours, which, where skilfully managed, produce a wonderfully pleasing effect to the eye. Above the shirt, the Highlanders wear a waistcoat of the same composition with the plaid, which commonly consists of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the shoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as represented in ancient statues: sometimes it is fastened round the middle with a leathern belt, so that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and supplies the want of breeches. This they call being dressed in a phelig, but which the Lowlanders called a kilt, and is no doubt the same word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the same variegated stuff, buckled round the waist, and this they term the philibeg, which seems to be of Milesian extraction. Their stockings were likewise of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into tassels. The poorer people wear upon their feet, brogues made of untanned or undressed leather; for their heads a blue flap cap is used, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally

nerally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and curiously inlaid with silver. The introduction of the broad sword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard, (which was always part of the Highland dress) seems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver; hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dress.

The dress of the Highland women consisted of a petticoat and jerkin, with strait sleeves, trimmed or not trimmed according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held close under their chins with the hand, or fastened with a buckle of a particular fashion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately disused in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoso may find a strong resemblance between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, and those of the Tuscans, (who were unquestionably of Celtic original,) as they are to be seen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dress rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the legislature, after the rebellion in 1715, to disarm them, and oblige them to conform to the low country dresses. The disarming scheme was the most successful, for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had scarcely any other arms than those which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legislature to force them into a total change of their dress. Its convenience, however, for the purposes of the field, is so great, that some of the Highland regiments still retain it. Even the common people have of late resumed the use of it; and for its lightness and disencumbrance, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the Summer time.

The dress of the higher and middling ranks in the low-country differ little or nothing from the English; but many of the peasantry still retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear. The dress of the women of all ranks are much the same in both kingdoms.

The language of the Highlanders, especially towards Loehaber and Badenoch, is radically Celtic. The English spoken by the Scots, notwithstanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more Southern counties, is written in the same manner in both kingdoms. At present, the pronunciation of a Scotoman does not differ so much from a Londoner, as that of a Londoner does from an inhabitant of Somersetshire, and some parts of Worcesterhire.

Punishments.] These are pretty much the same in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an instrument called the Maiden; the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland, by the regent earl of Morton, and it was hanged by his own execution.

Religion.]

Religion.] Ancient Scottish historians, Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Christianity was first taught in Scotland by some of the disciples of St John the apostle, who fled to this Northern corner to avoid the persecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; but it was not publicly professed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scots historians call Donald the First, his queen, and several of his nobles, were solemnly baptized. It was further confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the persecutions of Aurelius and Dioclesian, when it became the general religion of the country, under the management of a society of learned and pious men, named Culdees, whose principal seat was in St Andrews. These Culdees, though they appointed overseers for the better regulating of their affairs, were all equal in rank and dignity.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Christianity appears to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed as a national church, where it flourished in its native simplicity till the arrival of Palladius, a priest sent by the bishop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romish church, which at last prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkness which for many ages overspread Europe; though their dependence upon the pope was very slender, when compared to the blind subjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a distinct order, notwithstanding the oppression of the Romish clergy, so late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the fourteenth century, when they disappeared. But it is worthy of observation, that the opposition to popery in this island, though it ceased in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the same age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Huss and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the sixteenth century, and the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution; and the finishing blow to popery in England, was reserved to the age of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and sciences, began to revive in Europe, the absurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not escape the notice of a free and inquiring people, and gave rise to the reformation in Scotland; which began in the reign of James V. made great progress under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length compleated through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrine of Calvin, and was become the apostle of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that upon the abolition of the Roman Catholic religion, they were to succeed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, who had parcelled out these possessions for themselves, did not at first discourage this notion; but no sooner had Knox succeeded in his designs, which, through the fury of the mob, destroyed some of the finest ecclesiastical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolized all the church-livings, and most scandalously

scandalously left the reforming clergy to live almost in a state of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any struggle in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders left the doctrine and discipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the Presbyterian clergy of vast importance to the state; and their revenues have been so much mended, that though no stipend there exceeds 150*l.* a-year, few fall short of 60*l.* and none of 50*l.* If the present expensive mode of living continues in Scotland, the established clergy will have many unanswerable reasons to urge for the increase of their revenues.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and æconomical part of the church of Scotland. It is sufficient to say, that its first principle is a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its Presbyters; that it agrees in its censures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of opposition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. This establishment, at various periods, proved so tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater or lesser excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of estate, and sometimes of life, that the kirk-sessions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who are extremely jealous of their being revived. Even that relic of popery, the obliging fornicators of both sexes to sit upon what they call a repenting-stool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scots women, on account of that penance, were the greatest murderers of infants in the world. In short, the power of the Scots clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predecessors. They have been, ever since the revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the house of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes; but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no use of set forms in worship, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's prayer. The rents of the bishops, since the abolition of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purposes. A thousand pounds a-year is always sent by his majesty for the use of the protestant schools erected by act of parliament in North Britain, and the Western isles; and the Scots clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the support of their widows and orphans. The number of parishes in Scotland are 890, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the general assembly, which we may call the ecclesiastical parliament of Scotland. It consists of commissioners, some of which are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. A presbytery, consisting of under twelve ministers, sends two ministers and one ruling elder; if it contains between twelve and eighteen ministers, it sends three, and one ruling elder; if it contains
between

between eighteen and twenty-four ministers, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery has twenty-four ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whose election must be attested by the respective kirk-sessions of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner, usually a minister of their own body. The commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often of the first quality of the country.

The king presides by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in this assembly, which meets once a year; but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceeding is regular, though the number of members often create a confusion; which the moderator, who is chosen by them to be as it were speaker of the house, has not sufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to the general assembly; and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

Provincial synods are next in authority to the general assembly. They are composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reversible by the general assembly.

Subordinate to the synods are presbyteries, sixty-nine of which are in Scotland, each consisting of a number of contiguous parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder, chosen half-yearly, out of every kirk-session, compose a presbytery. These presbyteries meet in the head town of that division, but have no jurisdiction beyond their own bounds, though within these they have cognizance of all ecclesiastical causes and matters. A chief part of their business is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and solemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or present in six months after a vacancy, otherwise the presbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk-session is the lowest ecclesiastical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own parish. The members consist of the ministers and elders. The office and duty of a minister or presbyter, consists in preaching, administering the sacrament, catechising, visiting the sick, pronouncing church-censures, nominating elders, assisting at the ordination of ministers, within the bounds of their own presbytery, and presiding at the kirk-session.

The elders generally amount to eight or ten persons, selected by the minister from among the most intelligent and regular of his parishioners. The office of elder is nearly the same with that of churchwarden in England, having the superintendency of the poor, and the management of other parochial affairs. They also assist the minister, in several of his clerical duties, particularly in catechising, visiting the sick, and at the communion table. One of them is called the ruling elder, who is generally a person of the first quality and interest in the parish.

It has already been observed, that the established religion in Scotland is Presbyterian; that it was formerly of a rigid nature, and

partook of all the austerities of Calvinism, and intolerance of popery, by its persecuting spirit; but at present it is mild and gentle, and the most rational Christian may accommodate himself to the doctrine and worship of the national church. It is to be wished, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticism not only of lay seceders, but of regular ministers. These are industrious to fix upon the absurdities (and what church is without them) of former divines and visionaries, and ecclesiastical ordinances and discipline, which were found to be incompatible with the nature of government. They maintain their own preachers, though scarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not find, however, that they fly in the face of the civil power, or at least the instances are rare and inconsiderable.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishopricks, St Andrews and Glasgow; and twelve bishopricks, which are, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Ross, Caithness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Isles.

Learning and learned Men.] For this article we may refer to the literary history of Europe for these 1400 years past. The poems of Ossian sufficiently shew that the muses were no strangers there in very remote ages. The Western parts and Isles of Scotland produced St Patrick, the celebrated apostle of Ireland; and many others since, whose bare names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnanus, and other authors, who lived before, and at the time of the conquest of England, are specimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, according to Scots and foreign historians, held a correspondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed certain Scotsmen in planning, settling, and ruling his favourite universities, and other seminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany †. It is an undoubted truth, though a seeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scots poet, philosopher, and historian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flourished in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure English as that bard, and his versification is perhaps more harmonious. The destruction of the Scots monuments of learning and antiquity have rendered their yearly annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's history is to this day the most classical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scots kings to the neighbouring princes are generally allowed to be the finest compositions of the times in which they were written, and are free from many of the barbarisms to be found in those sent them in answer. This renders it at least highly probable, that classical learning was cultivated at the court of Scotland even in the rude ages, when ignorance overspread a considerable part of Europe.

The discovery of the Logarithms, a discovery which, in point both of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern

† Eginhard, in vit. Carol. Mag. also Paulus Emilius's history of the French achievements, &c. See Mackenzie's lives.

modern times, is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston. And since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with amazing success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning has added the colouring of a poet, which is the more remarkable, not only as the subject is little susceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on astronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of Sir Isaac Newton, was endowed with all that precision and force of mind which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehensions, and for diffusing that light through the world which Newton had confined within the sphere of the learned. His treatise on fluxions is regarded by the best judges in Europe, as the clearest account of the most refined and subtle speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometer no less famous, distinguished himself in the sure, but almost deserted tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr Simpson, so well known over Europe for his illustration of the ancient geometry. His elements of Euclid, and, above all, his Conic sections, are sufficient of themselves to establish the literary reputation of his native country.

Nor have the Scots been unsuccessful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners, who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the Northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, are astonished at the poetic genius, and delicate sensibility of Thomson.

It would be endless to mention all the individuals who have distinguished themselves in the various branches of literature; particularly, as some of those who are alive are still in high reputation, and may justly dispute the merit with the dead.

Universities.] The universities of Scotland are four, viz. Those of St Andrews, Aberdeen, Edinburgh, and Glasgow.

Society.] A society was incorporated, by patent, in the year 1708, for erecting schools in North Britain and the Isles; and, in 1716, an act passed for their establishment, and a fund of 20,000*l.* was appropriated and made a stock, for carrying on the design: and the society applying by King George II. for an additional charter to erect workhouses for employing children in manufactures, housewifery, and husbandry, in the Highlands and Isles, his majesty not only granted them a patent, but a revenue of 1000*l.* per annum, and they have now upwards of one hundred schools, in which between four and five thousand boys and girls are educated.

Antiquities and Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] The Roman, and other antiquities found in Scotland, have of themselves furnished matter for large volumes. The course of the Roman wall, (or, as it is called by the country people, Graham's Dyke, from a tradition that the Scottish warrior of that name first broke over it) between the Clyde and Forth, which was first marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is still discernible, as are several Roman camps

camps in the neighbourhood. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a striking remain of Roman antiquity. It is situated at Ardoch, in Perthshire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola before he fought the bloody battle so well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or the dome of St Paul's at London, stood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Stirlingshire, but was lately demolished by a neighbouring Goth for the purpose of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the base was eighty-eight feet; so that, upon the whole, it was one of the most compleat Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or some of his successors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it stood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman Empire in Britain to the North. Near it are some artificial conical mounds of earth, which still retain the name of Dunipace, or Duni-pacis; which serve to evidence, that there was a kind of solemn compromise between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former should not extend their empire farther to the Northwards.

In some parts of this kingdom have been discovered the remains of buildings of a most singular nature, in which the materials of the walls, instead of being cemented with lime or mortar, appear to have been completely vitrified. One Mr Williams lately published a treatise concerning these singular vestiges of antiquity, and the authenticity of the fact was acknowledged by Lord Kaims and Dr Black. Notwithstanding this the account was ridiculed by some pretenders to learning, and the vitrifications said to have proceeded from volcanoes, but the dispute is now ended, and the account given by Mr Williams universally allowed to be true. Concerning this unparalleled manner of building there is neither history nor tradition.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utensils, inscriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland; some of them to the North of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any establishment. By the inscriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the Southern parts.

Danish camps and fortifications are easily discernible in several Northern counties, and are known by their square figures and difficult situations. Some houses of stupendous fabrics remain in Ross-shire, but whether they are Danish, Pictish, or Scottish, does not appear.

Two Pictish monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary construction, were lately standing in Scotland, one of them at Abernethy, in Perthshire, the other at Brechin in Angus: both of them are columns, hollow in the inside, and without a staircase; that of Brechin is the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it consists of sixty regular courses of hewn free stone, laid circularly and regularly, and tapering towards the top. If those columns are really Pictish, that people must have had among them

architects

architects that far exceeded those of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman taste of architecture. It is, however, difficult to assign them to any but the Picts, as they stand, in their dominions; and some sculptures upon that at Brechin denote it to be of Christian original: It is not indeed impossible that those sculptures are of a later date. Besides those two pillars, many other Pictish buildings are found in Scotland, but not in the same taste.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient Scots themselves are not only curious but instructive, as they regard many important events of their history. That people had amongst them a rude notion of sculpture, in which they transmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obelisks are still to be seen, called the Danish stones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scots victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horse-back, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day, but minutely described by Mr Gordon. Many other historical monuments of the Scots may be discovered on the like occasions; but it must be acknowledged, that the obscurity of their sculptures have encouraged a field of boundless and frivolous conjectures, so that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable to neglect mentioning the stone near the town of Forreth or Fortrose, in Murry, which far surpasses all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is, (says Mr Gordon) perhaps, one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is no less than 12 or 15 feet below; so that the whole height is at least 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one single and entire stone; great variety of figures in relieve are carved thereon, some of them still distinct and visible: but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper part."

Besides these remains of Roman, Pictish, Danish, and Scots antiquities, many druidical monuments and temples are discernible in the Northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the Isles, where we may suppose that paganism took its last refuge. They are easily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are so stupendous as the druidical erections in South-Britain. There is in Perthshire a barrow which seems to be a British erection, and the most beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world; it exactly resembles the figure of a ship with the keel uppermost. The common people call it Ternay, which some interpret to be *terra navis*, the ship of earth. It seems to be of the most remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of some British prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lyes near Auchterarder, not many miles distant from the great scene of Agricola's operations.

Scotland affords few natural curiosities; mention, however, is made of a heap of white stones, most of them clear like chrystal, together with great plenty of oyster and other sea-shells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich, in Ross-shire, twenty

ty miles distant from the sea. Slains, in Aberdeenshire, is said to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping-cave, where water oozing through a spongy porous rock on the top, doth quickly consolidate after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curiosities belonging to Scotland have taken possession of its descriptions and histories, but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vanish when they are skilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeshire, and are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimensions, and have been the scenes of inhuman cruelties.

Cities, Towns, and other Edifices, public and private. Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally takes the lead in this division. The castle, before the use of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable by force. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territories reached to the Firth of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle, and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived; the high-street, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying East and West; and the lanes running down its sides, North and South. In former times the town was surrounded by water, excepting towards the East; so that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of Lislebourg. This situation suggested the idea of building very lofty houses divided into stories, each of which contains a suite of rooms, generally large and commodious for the use of a family; so that the high-street of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn stone, broad and well paved, makes a most august appearance, especially as it rises at full mile in a direct line, and gradual ascent from the palace of Holyrood-house on the East, and is terminated on the West by the rude majesty of its castle, built upon a lofty rocky inaccessible on all sides, except where it joins the city. The castle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a most extensive prospect of the river Forth, the shipping, the opposite coast of Fife, and even some hills at the distance of forty or fifty miles, which border upon the Highlands. The castle has some good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were deposited here under the most solemn legal instruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at present of those regalia, is contained in the instrument which was taken at the time of their being deposited, where they are fully described.

Facing the castle, at a mile's distance, stands the abbey, or rather palace of Holyrood-house. The inner quadrangle of this palace was begun by James V. and finished by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction of Sir William Bruce, a Scots gentleman of family, and undoubtedly one of the great architects of this age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters, and the inside con-

tains magnificent apartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at present nothing can be more uncomfortable than its situation, at the bottom of bleak unimproved craggs and mountains, with scarce a single tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it stood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a most elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of stone galleries supported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the Old Abbey. Its inside was demolished and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repositories of the dead, and discovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his first queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel gave way and fell down on the second and third of December, 1768, occasioned by the enormous weight of a new stone roof, laid over it some years ago, which the walls were unable to support.

The hospital founded by George Heriot, goldsmith to James VI. commonly called Heriot's Work, stands to the South-West of the castle, in a noble situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones, whom James VI. of Scotland brought over from Denmark, has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be seen in England. One Balquhahan, a divine, whom Heriot left his executor, is said to have prevailed upon Jones to admit some barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have insisted that the ornaments of each should be somewhat different from those of the others.

It is, notwithstanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens, elegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradesmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an university, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be said of its buildings, which were calculated for the sober literary manners of those days; they are, however, improvable, and may be rendered elegant: what is of far more importance, it is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning; and its schools, for every part of the medical art, are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is said to have been of late greatly augmented; and a museum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a physician: It contains several natural, and some literary curiosities.

The Parliament-square was formerly the most ornamental part of this city; it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of

which consists of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a very fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-house, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster-hall; and its roof, though executed in the same manner, is by many great judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord ordinary, presides by rotation; in a room near it sit the other judges, and adjoining are the public offices of the law; exchequer, chancery, therivalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; and the lawyers valuable library. This equals any thing of the like kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, being at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquisite taste and judgment. It contains likewise the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scots history, chartutaries, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals. Adjoining to the library is the room where the public records are kept; but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miserably dark and dismal.

The High Church of Edinburgh called that of St Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room where the general assembly sits. It is a large Gothic building, and its steeple is surmounted by arches formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to such buildings, but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deserves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the exchange, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the vast improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the North, the nobility, gentry, and others, have begun to build a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the present age. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, and the houses built of stone, in an elegant taste, with all the conveniencies that render those of England so delightful and commodious. The fronts of some are superbly finished in all the beauties of architecture; displaying at the same time the judgment of the builder, and the public spirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeable to the original plan, was to have been formed into a sheet of water, bordered by a terrace-walk, and the ascent towards the new town covered with pleasure gardens, shrubberies, &c. At the West, or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The Eastern extremity is bounded by a striking object of art, a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. We are the more particular in describing this place, that the reader may form some idea of its pleasant situation, standing on an eminence,

nence, with a gentle declivity on each side, in the heart of a rich country; the view Southward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic castle, and distant hills rising to an amazing height; while the prospect northwards gives full scope to the eye, pleases the imagination, and fills the mind with such ideas as the works of nature alone can inspire. One agreeable prospect, however, is still wanting, and that is a handsome clean inn, with a genteel coffee-room towards the North summit of the hill, which might easily be accomplished by subscription, and, from the great resort of travellers, could not fail to bring a profitable return.

Fronting the Northern extremity of the bridge, a fine building is now carrying on, under the name of the register-office, designed as a repository for the records and law-papers, just now kept in the parliament house. It is all built of stone, that it may be indestructible by fire, and bids fair, when finished, to excel every other building in this city, in the grandeur of its appearance.

Edinburgh may be considered, notwithstanding its castle, and an open wall which incloses it on the South side, of a very modern fabric, but in the Roman manner, as an open town; so that in fact, it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it against the rebels, who took possession of it in 1745. This city also contains a play-house, which has the sanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, assemblies, balls, music-meetings and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here as in any part of his majesty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailiffs, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooses its own deacon; and here are fourteen, namely, surgeons, goldsmiths, skimmers, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, masons, taylor, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provost is colonel of the town-guard, a military institution to be found in no part of his majesty's dominions but at Edinburgh; they serve for the city watch, and patrol the streets, are useful in suppressing small commotions, and attend the execution of sentences upon delinquents; they are divided into three companies, wear an uniform, and are immediately commanded by three officers under the name of captains. Besides this guard, Edinburgh raises sixteen companies of trained bands, which serve as militia. The revenues of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in most of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scots pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds, of a farthing, laid upon every Scots pint of ale (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts of the city. This is a most judicious impost, as it renders the poorest people insensible of the burden. Its produce, however, has been sufficient to defray the expence of supplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the distance of four miles; of erecting reservoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles distance, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. It contains nothing remarkable but the remains of two citadels (if they

they are not the same) fortified and bravely defended by the French against the English, under Mary of Guise, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, which are daily increasing; some of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particularized here. We cannot, however, avoid mentioning the earl of Abercorn's, a short way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's house at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-House, so called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothic chapel, counted one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanerk, situated on a gentle declivity slopping towards the river Clyde, forty-four miles West of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the second city of Scotland, and, considering its size, the first in Great Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved, and consequently clean. Their houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high, and many of them towards the center of the city are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in the finest stile of architecture, and the cathedral is a stupendous Gothic building, hardly to paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a very fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a masterly and a matchless fabrick. It was dedicated to St Mungo or Kentigern, who was bishop of Glasgow, in the sixth century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preserved from the fury of the reformers by the resolution of the citizens. The town-house is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magistrates. The university is esteemed the most spacious and best built of any in Scotland, and is at present in a thriving state. In this city are several well endowed hospitals; and it is particularly well supplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of the most illustrious stranger. A handsome bridge was lately built across the river Clyde, at the West end of the town, and a magnificent exchange newly erected near the cross. In Glasgow are eight churches, and nine or ten meeting-houses for sectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants have been estimated at 60,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a shire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the shire town, and evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It is a large well built city, and has a good quay or tide-harbour; in it are three churches and several episcopal meeting-houses, a considerable degree of foreign commerce, and much shipping, a well frequented university, and above 12,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile distant, though almost joined to the new by means

means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is a moderately large market-town, but has no haven. In each of these two places there is a well endowed college, both together being termed the university of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other. Perth, the capital town of Perthshire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic; it is finely situated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the most fertile spots in Great Britain, called the Carle of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000 inhabitants: it lies near the mouth of the river Tay: it is a town of considerable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings and peltry, to sundry foreign parts: it has three churches. Montrose, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lye in the same county of Angus: the first has a great and flourishing foreign trade, and the manufactures of the other two are upon the thriving hand.

The ancient Scots valued themselves upon their trusting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country: this was a maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced; and indeed to this day their forts would make but a sorry figure, if regularly attacked. The castle of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great strength, could not hold out forty-eight hours, if besieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the West Highlands, is sufficient to bridle the inhabitants of the neighbourhood, as are Fort George and Fort Augustus, in the North and North-West; but none of them can be considered as defences against a foreign enemy.

Within the course of this and the last century, vast numbers of noble edifices have been erected by private persons in Scotland, many of which are equal to the most superb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's surprize at this will cease, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapness of materials, where it can be gratified at so moderate an expence. This may likewise account for the stupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices which anciently abounded in Scotland, but at the time of the Reformation were mostly demolished to the ground by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in these practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy.

Commerce and Manufactures. Scotland may hitherto be justly looked upon as a none-described country. All the writers, till within these few years, who have treated of that nation, represent it as being in the very same state as a century ago. In this they are not to blame, because the alteration which the people and country have undergone has been inconceivably sudden. Without entering into the disputed point how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots, to take possession of Darien, and to carry on an East and West India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (so far as it went) executed with a noble spirit of enterprise. The misfortune of

that scheme, after receiving the highest and most solemn sanctions, is a disgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long languor of the Scottish commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country sustained, to the disgust the inhabitants received on that account, and some invasions of their rights, which they thought inconsistent with the articles of union. The intails and narrow settlements of family estates, and some remains of the feudal institutions, might contribute to the same cause.

Mr Pelham, when at the head of the administration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the first minister who discovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more considerable object of governmental inquiry than ever. All the benefits received by this country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragements granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his administration, made them sensible of their own importance; and, had he been a Scotsman, must have ruined his ministry. Mr Pitt, a succeeding minister, pursued Mr Pelham's wise plan; and justly boasted in parliament, that he availed himself of the courage, good sense, and spirit of the Scots, in carrying on the most extensive war that Great Britain ever was engaged in. It may be added, to the honour of the British government, that whatever indecent and mean resentments have been expressed by the refuse of the English nation against the Scots, the latter have been suffered to avail themselves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or posterior acts of parliament.

This is manifest in the extensive trade they carried on with the British settlements in America and the West-Indies, and with all the nations to which the English themselves trade; so that the increase of their shipping within these thirty years past, has been very considerable. The exports of those ships are composed chiefly of Scots manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the soil, and the industry of its inhabitants. In exchange for those, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, sugar, and rum, from the British plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immense saving of their nation.

The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coasts, for they have a vast concern in the whale fishery carried on upon the coast of Spitzbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of forty shillings for every ton of shipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fisheries, which we have already mentioned, and which are daily increasing, open inexhaustible funds of wealth; their cured fish being by foreigners, and the English planters in America, preferred to those of Newfoundland.

The busses, or vessels employed in the great herring fishery on the Western coasts of Scotland, are fitted out from the North-West parts of England, the North of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at

Cabletown,

Cambletown, a commodious port in Argyleshire, facing the North of Ireland, where sometimes 300 vessels have been assembled. They clear out on the twelfth of September, and must return to their different ports by the thirteenth of January. They are also under certain regulations respecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being judiciously calculated to promote the best of national purposes, its strength and its commerce. But though the political existence of Great Britain depends upon the number and bravery of her seamen, this noble institution has hitherto proved ruinous to many of those who have embarked in it, and unless vigorously supported will end in smoke.

To encourage this fishery, a bounty of fifty shillings per ton was granted by parliament, but whether from the insufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpose, or any other cause, the bounty was withheld from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only sinking their fortunes, but also borrowing to the utmost limits of their credit. The bounty has since been reduced from fifty to thirty shillings, with the strongest assurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the strength of these promises they have again embarked into the fishery, and again have experienced the delay of payment.

The benefits of those fisheries are perhaps equalled by other manufactures carrying on at land, particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingshire, where 1200 men are employed in casting cannon and a variety of domestic utensils. Their linen manufactory, notwithstanding a strong rivalry from Ireland, supported underhand by some English, is in a flourishing state. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not superior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been said, some years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the British plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Osnaburghs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000 l. exclusive of their home-consumption; and there is reason to believe that the sum is considerably larger at present. The Scots are likewise making very promising efforts for establishing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, stockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very considerable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the English in their finer cloths; but they make at present some broad cloth proper for the wear of people of fashion in an undress, and in quality and fineness equal to what is commonly called Yorkshire cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vast progress they have made in working the mines, and smelting the ores of their country. Their coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their stones to account, by their contracts for paving the streets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the English, is now diminished, it is owing to the best of national causes, that of an increase of home-consumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the Eastern ports of the nation; but Glasgow is the great emporium for the American commerce.

A few

A few years ago, a canal was cut between the Friths of Forth and Clyde; by means of which, goods can now be conveyed between these two places by water, and a very expensive land-carriage will be saved. This undertaking was executed at the expence of upwards of 120,000*l.* sterling, and must surely produce the greatest advantages to the country in general; as thus a ready communication is opened between the Eastern and Western coasts of the island, which formerly could not take place without a tedious circumnavigation, or a land-carriage of very considerable length. It was at first thought, that the expence of keeping this canal in repair would be more than an equal balance for its advantages; but that is now found not to be the case, and vessels of considerable burden pass with the greatest ease, and in a very short time.

With regard to other manufactures, some of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paisley itself employs an incredible number of hands in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and striped lawns, which are a reasonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houses, glass-works of every kind, delf-houses, and paper-mills, are erected every where. The Scots carpeting make neat and lasting furniture; and some essays have been lately made, with no inconsiderable degree of success, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as is found in any part of Europe. Even the fine arts begin to make some progress. An academy of painting, engraving, and statuary, was established at Glasgow, under the patronage of several noblemen, gentlemen, and principal merchants, but this did not meet with sufficient encouragement: a society of antiquaries hath of late been established at Edinburgh. After all that has been said, many years will be required before the trade and improvements of Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event, they never can give umbrage to the English, as the interests of the two people are, or ought to be the same.

Revenue.] See England.

Coins.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the same in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scots shilling answered to about an English sixpence; and about the reign of Queen Mary of Scotland, it was no more than an English groat. It continued diminishing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns, under her son James VI. when the vast resort of the Scots nobility and gentry to the English court, occasioned such a drain of specie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scots shilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an English shilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scots penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were succeeded by bodles, which was double the value of a Scots penny, and are still current, but daily wearing out. A Scots halfpenny was called a *babie*; some say, because it was first stamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words, *bas piece*, signifying a low piece of money. The same observation we have made of the Scots shilling holds of their pounds and merks; which are not coins, but denomination of sums. In all other respects, the currency of money in Scotland and

England

England is the fame; as very few people now reckon by the Scots computation.

Order of the Thistle.] This is a military order, instituted, as the Scots writers assert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offensive and defensive league with Charlemagne, king of France. It has been frequently neglected, and as often resumed. At present it consists of the sovereign, and twelve companions, who are called Knights of the Thistle, and have on their ensign this significant motto, *Nemo me impune lacessit*. None shall safely provoke me.

Laws and Constitution.] No government in Europe was better fitted for the enjoyment of liberty than that of Scotland was by its original constitution; and if it was reprehensible in any respect, it was that it left more freedom to the subject than is consistent with civil subordination.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promises, *viz.*

"In the name of Christ, I promise these three things to the Christian people my subjects; *First*, That I shall give order, and employ my force and assistance, that the church of God, and the Christian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. *Secondly*, I shall prohibit and hinder all persons, of whatever degree, from violence and injustice. *Thirdly*, In all judgments I shall follow the prescriptions of justice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may shew mercy to me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown, by military service. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commissioned ambassadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of state and privy-counsellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and restrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was so bounded, that he was not even intrusted with the executive part of the government. And so late as the minority of James IV. who was contemporary with and son-in-law to Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the first servant of his people; as appears by the acts still extant. In short, the constitution was rather aristocratical than monarchical. The abuse of these aristocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very considerable interest among the lower ranks; and a prince who had sense and address to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the most overgrown of his subjects:

subjects: when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. shewed a disrespect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithstanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were assisted by their clergy, whose revenues were immense, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. These were chosen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeses. The bishops, for instance, chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; and those sixteen jointly chose eight barons (or knights of the shire) and eight commissioners for burghs; and to all those were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole.

Their business was to prepare all questions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; so that in fact though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to bestow, always sure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It must be acknowledged, that this institution seems to have prevailed by stealth, nor was it ever brought into any regular system; even its modes carried; and the greatest lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never lost sight of their original principles; and though Charles I. wanted to form these lords of the articles into regular machines for his own despotic purposes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy consequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a fresh instance how much better they understood the principles of liberty than the English did, by omitting all pedantic debate about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince and princess of Orange.

This spirit of resistance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the most insupportable ministerial tyranny ever since the Restoration. It is asked, Why did they submit to that tyranny? the answer is, In order to preserve that independency upon England which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to destroy by uniting them with England; they therefore chose to submit to a temporal evil, but they took the first opportunity to get rid of their oppressors.

Scotland, when it was a separate kingdom, cannot be said to have had any peers, in the English sense of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquisses, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary barons of parliament; but they formed no distinct house, for they sat in the same room with the commons, who had the same deliberative and decisive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might sit upon a lord's assize in matters of life and death; nor was it necessary for the assizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal customs, even at the time of the Restoration, were so prevalent, the rescue of a great criminal was commonly so much apprehended, that seldom above two days passed between the sentence and the execution.

Great

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scots history, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes; a convention, or meeting of the states, only met for the purposes of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four lesser officers of state; the great, were the lord high chancellor, high treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary: the four lesser were, the lords register, advocate, treasurer-depute, and justice-clerk. Since the Union none of these continue, excepting the lords privy-seal, register, advocate, and justice-clerk; a third secretary of state has occasionally been nominated by the king for Scottish affairs, but under the same denomination as the other two secretaries. The above officers of state sat in the Scots parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, constables, admiral, and marshal. The officers of constable and marshal were hereditary. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral; and the office of marshal is exercised by a knight marshal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the same in England. The same may be said of the lords treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary. The lord-register was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treasury, exchequer, and session, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleasure, yet it was very lucrative, by disposing of his deputation, which lasted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon a division. The lord-advocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extensive; because, by the Scots laws, he is the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the judiciary, and likewise concurs in all pursuits before sovereign courts for breaches of the peace; and also in all matters civil, wherein the king, or his donator, has interest. Two solicitors are named by his majesty, by way of assistance to the lord-advocate. The office of justice-clerk, entitles the possessor to preside in the criminal court of justice, while the justice-general, an office we shall describe hereafter, is absent.

The ancient constitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and state, but they are either now extinct or too inconsiderable to be described here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex sæcialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is still in being; and it was formerly an office of great splendour and importance, inasmuch that the science of heraldry was preserved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned solemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, which is not the case in England, in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy-council of Scotland, before the Revolution, had, or assumed inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great Britain, and the civil and criminal causes there are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The first is that of the college of justice, which was instituted by James V. after the model of the French Parliament, to supply an am-

bulatory committee of parliament, who took to themselves the names of the lords of council and session, which the present members of the college of justice still retain. This court consists of a president and fourteen ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a standing jury, in all matters of property that lye before them. Their forms of proceeding do not lye within our plan, neither does any inquiry how far such an institution, in so narrow a country as Scotland, is compatible with the security of private property. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of surprize, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, can be easily accounted for, because those laws and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. We shall just add, that the lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity, but their decrees are reversible by the house of lords, to which an appeal lies.

The justice court is the highest criminal tribunal in Scotland; but, in its present form, it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord justice general, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court are the justice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits, but, as we have already hinted, without any necessity of their being unanimous.

Besides those two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the same power, authority, privilege, and jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto, are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland, was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters, and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to his jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before his court, but no advocacy lyes from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in his court by the civil law, which, in such cases, is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Orelon, Wisby, and the Hansetowns, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent.

ment. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000*l.* a-year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college, or faculty, of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scots lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attornies, who call themselves *writers to the signet*, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a bye-government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland; we shall pass to those that are inferior.

The government of the counties of Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffdoms were generally, tho' most absurdly, hereditary; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being there enacted, That all high-sheriffs, or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs, and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputes, and the steward-deputes, it is enacted, That there shall only be one in each county, or stewartry, who must be an advocate of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unless guilty of some offence. Some other regulations have been likewise introduced, highly for the credit of the sheriffs courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous, and so extravagant, that all the Scots regalities are now dissolved by an act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three hours, in the day-time. These courts, however petty, were, in former days, invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tithes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the kingdom there sits but one judge on these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland

land exercised pretty much the same powers as those in England. In former times, their office, though of very long standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The institution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman conquest of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to register depositions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors; the office, however, is at present much disused in Scotland.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a-year at Edinburgh, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extensive, and before the Union they made laws relating to shipping, to masters and owners of ships, to mariners and merchants, by whom they were freighted; to manufactures, such as plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of fish, salmon, and herrings; to the importing and exporting several commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is subject to their regulation; they fix the staple-port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conservator is indeed nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his salary; so that, in truth, the whole staple trade is subjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very singular institution, and sufficiently proves the vast attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its present form in the reign of James III. in 1487, and had excellent consequences for the benefit of commerce.

History.] Though the writers of ancient Scots history are too fond of system and fable, yet it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were, probably, the first inhabitants; the Picts, undoubtedly, were the Britons, who were forced Northwards by the Belgic Gauls, above fourscore years before the descent of Julius Cæsar; and who, settling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, who were driven Northwards by the Romans. The Scots, most probably, were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had served in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying Southward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all these people, in process of time, were subdued by the Scots.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the history of that war is not only transmitted with great precision, but corroborated by the

the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raised by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave stand made by Galdus against that great general does honour to the valour of both people; and the sentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble historian with the same generous passion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal some part of this war; for tho' he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned Southward, to the province of the Horesti, which was the county of Fyfe, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwise called Corbred, was, according to the Scots historians, the 21st in a lineal descent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been disputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman histories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a succession of brave and wise princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant resistance obliged Agricola himself, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous preteatures or walls, which have been described in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never subdued.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Christian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as beforementioned, were the descendents of the ancient Britons, had been forced Northwards by the Romans, and at this time gained a footing in Scotland; being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined with the Romans against the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and considered themselves as one people; so that the Scots monarchy suffered a short eclipse; but it broke out with more lustre than ever under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his successors gave many severe overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a British historian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very sea; so that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief; and in the famous letter, which they called their groans, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being swallowed up by the sea, or perishing by the swords of the Barbarians; for so all nations were called who were not Roman, or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldest histories, and those that are least favourable to monarchy, that the succession to the crown of Scotland still continued in the family of Fergus, but generally descended collaterally; till the inconveniences of that mode of succession were so much felt, that by degrees, it fell into disuse, and it was at last settled in the right line.

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince so much respected, that his friendship was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which seems to have

have laid the foundation of an alliance that was held inviolate, while the monarchy of Scotland continued to exist; in support of which they were ever ready to second the views of France, to espouse her cause, to fight her battles, either at home or in foreign countries, sometimes almost to the extirpation of the best blood of their nation. This blind partiality to France, notwithstanding the many inviting, and indeed reasonable overtures from England, can only be accounted for from that spirit of liberty which breathes through their whole history, the veneration for the ancient line of their kings, and a jealousy which every man entertained of a more powerful nation, against whom nature had placed no barrier.

The Picts still remained in Scotland as a separate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth MacAlpin was king of Scotland, finally subdued them, but not in the savage manner mentioned by some historians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themselves with their conquerors, by taking their name and adopting their laws. The successors of Kenneth MacAlpin maintained almost perpetual wars with the Saxons on the Southward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the East; who, being masters of the sea, harassed the Scots by powerful invasions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the English, for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at last driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Danish monarchs, who, then governed England, were not more successful against the Scots; who maintained their freedom and independency, not only against foreigners, but against their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was probably introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words, which signify a large head, but most probably his great capacity, was the eighty-sixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the supposed founder of the monarchy; the forty-seventh from its restorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-second from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakespeare, who keeps close to the facts delivered by historians, can be no stranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own history previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wise and magnanimous prince, and in no respect inferior to his contemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, surnamed the Outlaw, son to Edmund Ironside, king of England. By the death of her brother, Edgar Etheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the posterity of that princess, who was one of the wisest and worthiest women of the age; and her daughter, Maud, was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his son, treacherously, as it is said, at the siege of Alnwick, by the besieged.

Malcolm III. was succeeded by his brother, Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whose legitimacy was disputed. They were

were succeeded by Edgar, Alexander, and David, the sons of Malcolm, who were wise and brave princes.

Notwithstanding the endeavours of some historians to conceal the glories of David's reign, yet he was, perhaps, the greatest prince of his age; whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. The noble actions he performed in the service of his niece, the empress Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the English crown, give us the highest idea of his virtues, as they could be the result only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightiest prince of his age, owed his crown; and his possessions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power on an equality with that of England, when confined to this island. His actions and adventures, and the resources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the first rank. If he appeared to be too lavish to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to consider these were the only means by which he could then civilize his kingdom; and the code of laws we have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him, do his memory immortal honour. They are said to have been compiled under his inspection by learned men, whom he assembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melros. He was succeeded by his grandson, Malcolm IV. and he, by William, surnamed, from his valour, the Lion. William's son, Alexander II. was succeeded, in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, first, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince, who married the earl of Flanders daughter; David and Margaret, who married Hangowan, or, as some call him, Eric, son to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter, named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway; in whom king William's whole posterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the descendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was grandson to David earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce, (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce,) grandson to the same earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Isabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not then so well established in Europe as they are at present, rendered the case very difficult. Both parties were almost equally matched in interest; but after a confused interregnum of some years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most politic, ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter; but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete absurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him, but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a slave, without Baliol's consenting it.

After this, Edward used many bloody endeavours to annex their crown to his own; but though they were often defeated, the independent Scots never were subdued. They were indeed but few, compared to those in the interest of Edward and Baliol, which was the

same; and for some time were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himself of their weakness and his own power. He accepted of a formal surrender of the crown from Baliol, to whom he allowed a pension, but detained him in England; and sent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the least suspected, to different prisons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to sign instruments of their subjection to him; and most barbarously carried off, or destroyed, all the monuments of their history, and the evidences of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical stone, which is still to be seen in Westminster-abbey.

Those severe proceedings, while they rendered the Scots sensible of their slavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward, finding their spirits were not to be subdued, endeavoured to caress them, and affected to treat them on the footing of an equality with his own subjects, by projecting an Union, the chief articles of which have since taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scots patriots treated this project with disdain; and united under the brave William Wallace, the truest hero of his age, to expel the English. Wallace performed actions that entitle him to eternal renown, in executing this scheme. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increasing, the Scots nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the son of the first competitor, began to suspect that he had an eye upon the crown, especially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garrisons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the States of Scotland their protector. Their jealousy operated so far, that they formed violent cabals against the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the most numerous and best disciplined army England had ever seen, for it consisted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horsemen, completely armed, and 4000 light armed; and was attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. These, besides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irresistible body; so that Edward was obliged to divide it, reserving the command of 40,000 of his best troops to himself. With these he attacked the Scots army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their disputes ran so high, that the brave regent was deserted by Cumming, the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the best division of his countrymen. Wallace, whose troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vast loss, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace still continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions against the English; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who most ungenerously put him to death at London as a traitor; but he died himself, as he was preparing to renew his invasion of Scotland with a still more desolating spirit of ambition, after having destroyed, according to the best historians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died soon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inspired his son, who was a prisoner at large about the English court, with the glorious resolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's

country's independency. He escaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he assumed the crown; but was defeated by the English (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After this defeat, he fled, with one or two friends, to the Western Isles and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and sufferings were as inexpressible, as the courage with which he and his few friends (the Lord Douglas especially) bore them. Though his wife and daughter were sent prisoners to England, where the best of his friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death, yet, such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the dissipated conduct of Edward II. who raised an army more numerous and better appointed still than that of his father, to make a total conquest of Scotland. It is said that it consisted of 300,000, but this must be understood as including the foreigners attending the camp, which in those days were very numerous; but it is admitted on all hands, that it consisted of more than 100,000 fighting men, while that of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them heroes who had been bred up in a detestation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led this mighty host towards Stirling, then besieged by Bruce; who had chosen, with the greatest judgment, a camp near Bannock-burn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Those under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himself, was reckoned to be the best knight of Scotland; his nephew, Randolph, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-steward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scots army was furious beyond dispute, and required all the courage and firmness of Bruce and his friends to resist it, which they did so effectually, that they gained one of the most complete victories that is recorded in history. The great loss of the English fell upon the bravest part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in person against Bruce himself. The Scots writers make the loss of the English to amount to 50,000 men. Be that as it will, there certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors lost 4000. The flower of the English nobility were either killed or taken prisoners. Their camp, which was immensely rich, and calculated for the purpose rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himself, with a few followers, favoured by the goodness of their horses, were pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he escaped in a fishing boat. This great and decisive battle happened in the year 1314.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a series of the most glorious successes; and so well did his nobility understand the principles of civil liberty, and so unfettered they were by religious considerations, that, in a letter they sent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had set aside Baliol for debasing the crown by holding it of England; and that they would do the same by Robert if he should make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, sent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he

conquered the greatest part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by exposing himself too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, which happened in 1328, made an advantageous peace with England; and when he died he was acknowledged to be indisputably the greatest hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be said to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was succeeded by his son, David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipsed by his brother-in-law, and enemy, Edward III. of England, whose sister he married. Edward, who was as keen as any of his predecessors upon the conquest of Scotland, espoused the cause of Baliol, son to Baliol, the original competitor. His progress was at first amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scots patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken prisoner by the English at the battle of Durham; and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ransom; and died in peace, without issue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The first king of that name was Robert II. a wise and brave prince. He was succeeded by his son Robert III. whose age and infirmities disqualified him from reigning; so that he was forced to trust the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who seems to have had an eye to the crown for his own family. Robert, upon this, attempted to send his second son to France, but he was most ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England, during the continuance of a truce; and after suffering a captivity of 19 years, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ransom. During the imprisonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greatest height in France, where they supported that tottering monarchy against England, and their generals obtained some of the first titles of the kingdom.

James, the first of that name, upon his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government, enacted many wise laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he saw the feudal system refined from many of the imperfections which still adhered to it, in his own kingdom, he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover such lands as had been unjustly wrested from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns; but the execution of these designs cost him his life, being murdered in his bed by some of the chief nobility, in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority succeeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greatest of his ancestors, both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been suddenly killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the thirtieth year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to favourites, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of

James

James III. and his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, being slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave; he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, so that they rivalled the English in riches: and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family-distemper, a predilection for the French, in whose cause he rashly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent presents. But James took no share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the instigation of the clergy, to a religious persecution, though, it is generally believed, that, had he lived, he would have seized all the church-revenues, in imitation of Henry; but he died in the 31st year of his age, anno 1542, of grief, for an affront which his arms had sustained in an ill-judged expedition against the English.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. The history of her beauty and her misfortunes are alike famous in the annals of Europe. It is sufficient here to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her own cousin-german, the lord Darnly, whose untimely death has given rise to much controversy, the result of which has been a decision favourable to her memory. The consequence of her husband's death was a rebellion, by which she was driven into England, where she was, through the jealousy of queen Elizabeth, detained a prisoner for 18 years, and afterwards beheaded by order of that prince in 1586-7, and the 46th year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after shewing great abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, destroyed the independency, as it impoverished the people of Scotland; for the seat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to seek for bread in other countries. James, after a splendid, but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his son, the
unfortunate

unfortunate Charles I. It is well known, that the despotic principles of that prince received the first check from the Scots; and that, had it not been for them, he would easily have subdued his English rebels, who implored the assistance of the Scots; but afterwards, against all the ties of honour and humanity, brought him to the block in 1648.

The Scots saw their error when it was too late; and made several bloody, but unfortunate attempts, to save the father, and to restore his son, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester; after which, to the time of his restoration, the usurper and the army gave law to Scotland. We have, in another place, touched upon the most material parts of Charles's reign, and that of his deluded brother, James VII. of Scotland, and II. of England, as well as of King William, who was so far from being a friend to Scotland, that, relying on his royal word to her parliament, she was brought to the brink of ruin.

The state of parties in England, to the accession of queen Anne, was such, that the Whigs, once more, had recourse to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate union as it now stands. It was long before the majority of the Scots parliament would listen to the proposal; but at last, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money distributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; since which event, the history of Scotland becomes the same with that of England.

I R E L A N D.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, and EXTENT.

THE island of Ireland is situated on the West side of England, between six and ten degrees West longitude, and between fifty-one and fifty-five degrees twenty minutes North latitude. The extent, or superficial content of this kingdom is in length 285 miles from Fairhead North, to Missenhead South; and from the East part of Down, to the West part of Mayo, its greatest breadth, 160 miles, and contains 11,067,712 Irish plantation acres, which makes in all 17,927,864 acres of English statute measure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. From the East part of Wexford to St David's in Wales, it is reckoned forty-five miles, but the passage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than twenty miles.

Name and Divisions, ancient and modern.] The name Hibernia, in Irish Erin, probably takes its rise from a Phœnician or Gallic term, signifying the farthest habitation Westward.

Counties.

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	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>	
Leinster, 12 Counties.	Dublin	DUBLIN	} N. L. 53. 20. W. L. 6. 28.
	Louth	Drogheda	
	Wicklow	Wicklow	
	Wexford	Wexford	
	Longford	Longford	
	East Meath	Trim	
	West Meath	Mullenger	
	King's County	Philipstown	
	Queen's County	Maryborough	
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny	
Ulster, 9 Counties.	Kildare	Kildare	
	Carlow	Carlow	
	Down	Down	
	Armagh	Charlemont	
	Monaghan	Monaghan	
	Cavan	Cavan	
	Antrim	Carrickfergus	
	Londonderry	Derry	
	Tyrone	Omagh	
	Fermanagh	Enniskillen	
Connaught, 6 Count.	Donegall	Donegall	
	Leitrim	Leitrim	
	Roscommon	Roscommon	
	Mayo	Ballinrobe	
	Sligo	Sligo	
	Galway	Galway	
Munster, 5 Counties.	Clare	Ennis	
	Cork	Cork	
	Kerry	Tralee	
	Limerick	Limerick	
	Tipperary	Clommel	
	Waterford	Waterford	

Climate, Seasons, and Soil.] The climate of Ireland differs little from that of England, with which it would almost perfectly agree, were the soil equally improved. Uncultivated swamps, bogs, and forests, and uninhabited banks of rivers, naturally produce fogs and an unwholesome thickness of air, as is the case with some parts of England itself; but, upon the whole, the air of the cultivated part of Ireland is as mild and salubrious, and as friendly to human nature as that of England; some have thought that it is even more so.

The soil of Ireland in general is fruitful, perhaps equal to that of England itself, when properly cultivated. Ireland rears vast numbers of black cattle and sheep, and the Irish wool is excellent. The prodigious, and, indeed, incredible supplies of salt provisions, (fish excepted) shipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, are proofs scarcely to be exhibited in any other country, of the natural fertility of the Irish soil. As to the seasons of Ireland, they differ little

little from those of Great Britain, in the same latitude. We must not here forget that Ireland is remarkable for breeding and nourishing no venomous creatures.

Rivers, Bays, Harbours and Lakes.] The Schannon, issuing from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, serves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a course of 150 miles, forming in its progress many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks spreading quite across it, South of Kilalloe. The Ban falls into the sea near Colerain, the Boyne falls into St George's channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffy at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a spacious harbour. The Barrow, the Noer, and the Suir, water the South part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their streams below Ross, they fall into the channel at Waterford-haven.

The most considerable harbours, &c. are those of Carriekfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinsale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantfy, Kilmarc, Dingle, Shannonmouth, Galway, Sligoe, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

Ireland contains a vast number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fish; and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. The Irish are so fond of loughs, that they often give that term to inlets of the sea.

Ireland, when compared with some other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iseah, in the county of Down, are reckoned among some of the highest in the kingdom, of which Slieu-Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous histories that are annexed to some of them. Some of these mountains contain in their bowels beds of mines, minerals, coals, quarries of stone, slate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

Forests.] The chief forests in Ireland lye in Leinster, the King's and Queen's counties, and those of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulster there are great forests, and in the county of Donegall and in the North part of Tyrone; also in the county of Fermanach, along Loughlin Earne, and in the North part of the county of Down, wherein is some good timber, and the oak is esteemed as good as any of the English growth, and as fit for ship-building.

Metals and Minerals.] The mines of Ireland are late discoveries. Several contain silver and lead, and it is said that thirty pounds of their dead ore produce a pound of silver; but the richest silver mines is at Wicklow. A copper and lead mine have been discovered at Tipperary, as likewise iron ore, and excellent free-stone for building.

Some

Some of the Irish marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little smoke, and it contains a chrystalline stream which has no sediment. Those peculiarities, with the serenity of the air in that place, had given rise to the well-known proverb, That Kilkenny contains fire without smoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

Vegetable and Animal productions, by Sea and Land.] There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the same as in England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moor, which are of vast service for firing, where wood and coals are scarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland, but they are now almost exterminated by their wolf dogs, which are much larger than mastiffs, shaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as spaniels.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs and Diversions.] As it is of great consequence to ascertain as near as possible the numbers of inhabitants of Ireland of both religions, we shall give them, according to the best accounts, as they stood in the four provinces in 1733.

	Protestant families.	Popish families.
In Ulster,	62,620	38,459
Leinster,	25,238	92,424
Munster,	13,337	106,407
Connaught,	4,299	44,133
	Total 105,494	Total 281,423

which, at five to each family in the country, and ten for Dublin, and seven for Cork city, makes in all 2,015,229 souls.

The old Irish, or, as they are termed by the protestants, the *mere Irish*, are generally represented as an ignorant, uncivilized, and blundering sort of people. Impatient of abuse, and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections, but quick of apprehension, courteous to strangers, and patient of hardships. Though in these respects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbarisms are more easy to be accounted for from accidental than natural causes. By far the greatest number of them are Papists, and it is the interest of their priests, who govern them with an absolute sway, to keep them in the most profound ignorance. They also lye under many legal disabilities, which in their own country discourages the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the service of foreign princes, they are distinguished for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their surnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which signify grandson and son: formerly the *O* was used by their chiefs only, or such as piqued themselves upon the antiquity of their families. Their music is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy strain; though some of the

latest airs are lively, and, when sung by an Irishman, extremely diverting. The old Irish is generally spoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where some of the old uncouth customs still prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this custom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their custom of placing a dead corpse before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body, to excite the charity of passengers, is practised even in the skirts of Dublin; and their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, dancing to the bagpipe, but more often quarreling among themselves, is offensive to every stranger.

Their wealth consists of a cow, sometimes a horse, some poultry, and a spot for potatoes. Coarse bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and sometimes fish, constitute their food. For, however plentifully the fields may be stocked with cattle, these poor natives seldom taste butcher meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robust, and hearty, scarcely know the use of clothes, and are not ashamed to gaze upon strangers, or make their appearance upon the roads, in that primitive manner.

Religion.] The established religion and ecclesiastical discipline of Ireland is the same with that of England. Among the bulk of the people, in the most uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the most absurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Irish papists still retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries; but even the blind submission of the latter to their clergy does not prevent protestantism from making a very rapid progress there in towns and communities. Great efforts have been made ever since the days of James I. in erecting free schools for civilizing and converting the Irish papists. The institution of the incorporated society for promoting English protestant working-schools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly successful, as have many institutions of the same kind, in introducing industry and knowledge among the Irish.

Ireland contains at least as many sectaries as England, particularly presbyterians; anabaptists, quakers, and methodists, who are all of them connived at and tolerated.

Archbishopsricks and Bishopsricks.] The archbishopsricks are four, Armagh, Dublin, Tuam, and Cashell.

The Bishopsricks are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonsfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Kilalloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe, Waterford, Kilmore, and Killala.

Language.] The language of the Irish is fundamentally the same with the British and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made use of by the Scots Highlanders opposite the Irish coasts.

Universities.] Ireland contains but one university (if a college can be called such) which is that of Dublin, founded by queen Elizabeth, under the title of the College of the holy and undivided Trinity, near Dublin, with a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, masters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. At present it consists

consists of a provost, seven senior, thirteen junior fellows, and seventy scholars of the house, who have maintenance upon the foundation. The visitors are the chancellor, or vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin.

Antiquities and Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] The Irish goshawks and gerfalcons are celebrated for their shape and beauty. The mouse-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this island, their horns being sometimes dug up of so great a size, that one pair has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greatest natural curiosity in Ireland is the Giant's Causeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus described by Dr Pococke, late bishop of Ossory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He says, "that he measured the most Westerly point at high water, to the distance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended sixty feet further upon a descent, till it was lost in the sea. Upon measuring the Eastern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and saw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the East, and is like that lost in the water.

The causeway is composed of pillars all of angular shapes, from three sides to eight. The Eastern point where it joins the rock terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright sides of the pillars, some of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar consists of several joints or stones, lying one upon another, from six inches to about a foot in thickness; and, what is very surprising, some of these joints are so convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of spheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greatest firmness, every stone being concave on the other side, and fitting in the exactest manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally consist of about forty joints, most of which separate very easily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

"But this is not the most singular part of this extraordinary curiosity, the cliffs themselves being still more surprising. From the bottom, which is of black stone, to the height of about sixty feet, they are divided at equal distances by stripes of a reddish stone, that resembles a cement, about four inches in thickness; upon this there is another stratum of the same black stone, with a stratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another stratum ten feet thick divided in the same manner; then a stratum of the red stone twenty feet deep, and above that a stratum of upright pillars; above these pillars lies another stratum of black stone, twenty feet high; and above this again another stratum of upright pillars, rising in some places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not so high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of these cliffs extends about three English miles."

Cities, Towns, Ports, and other } Dublin, the capital of Ireland,
Edifices, public and private. } is in magnitude and the number
 of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions; much

about the size of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marfeilles. It is built in the form of a square, about two miles and a half long, and nearly as much in breadth, and is supposed to contain 140,000 inhabitants. It is situated 270 miles North-West of London, and sixty miles West from Holyhead, in North Wales, the usual station of the passage-vessels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin stands about seven miles from the sea, at the bottom of a large and spacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almost into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both sides, which form spacious quays, where vessels below the first bridge load and unload before the merchants doors and warehouses. A stranger, upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about seven miles broad, and in stormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably surprized with the beautiful prospect on each side, and the distant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low situation, makes no great appearance.

The river Liffey, though navigable for sea-vessels as far as the customhouse, or centre of the city, is but small, when compared to the Thames at London. Over it are two handsome bridges, lately built of stone, in imitation of that at Westminster, and three others that have little to recommend them. Hitherto the centre of Dublin towards the customhouse was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purposes; but of late a new street has been opened, leading from Essex-bridge to the castle, where the lord lieutenant resides. A new exchange is built, the first stone of which was laid by Lord Townsend, the then lord lieutenant, and several other useful undertakings and embellishments are in agitation.

The linen-hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of such linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for sale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the trustees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are composed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbishop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry.

The front of Trinity college, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland stone in the finest state.

The parliament house was begun in 1729, and finished in 1739, at the expence of 40,000*l*. This superb pile is in general of the Ionic order, and is at this day justly accounted one of the foremost architectural beauties. The portico in particular is, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts have also many beauties, and the manner in which the building is lighted has been much admired. But one of the greatest and most laudable undertakings that this age can boast of, is the building of a stone-wall about the breadth of a moderate street, a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to shelter vessels in stormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord mayor, &c. the same as in London. Every third year, the lord mayor, and the twenty-four companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the Franchises. In Dublin are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which

which serve as a kind of nursery to those in London. In this city are eighteen parish-churches, eight chapels, three churches for French, and one for Dutch protestants, seven presbyterian meeting-houses, one for methodists, two for quakers, and sixteen Roman catholic chapels. A royal hospital like that at Chelsea, for invalids; a lying-in hospital, with gardens, built and laid out in the finest taste; an hospital for lunatics, built by the famous Dean Swift, who himself died a lunatic; and sundry other hospitals for patients of every kind. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding in a more elegant manner.

Cork is deservedly reckoned the second city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles South-West of Dublin, and contains above 8100 houses, inhabited chiefly by protestants.

Its haven is deep and well sheltered from all winds; but small vessels only come up to its quay, and stand about seven miles up the river Lee. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and shipping. It is commanded by Duncannon fort, and on the West side of the town is a citadel. Limerick is a handsome, populous, commercial, strong city, and lies on both sides the Shannon.

Belfast is a large seaport and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen water, where it falls into Carrickfergus bay. Downpatrick has a flourishing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus, (or Knockfergus) is by some deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and castle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is most usually called) stands on Lough-Foyl, is a strong little city, having some linen manufactures, with some commerce and shipping. All this extreme North part of Ireland is situated so near to Scotland, that they are in sight of each others coasts. Donegal, the county town of the same name, (otherwise called the county of Tyrconnel,) is a place of some trade; as is likewise Enniskilling. All which last mentioned places, and many more (though less considerable ones) are chiefly and most industriously employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen thread, to the great benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vast annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewise to render the money constantly drawn from Ireland into England by her absentees, less grievous to her.

Ireland has several forts and garrisons, that serve as comfortable sinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry and Culmore fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinsale, Duncannon, Ross-Castle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of these forts is furnished with deputy-governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary provisions from the government.

Commerce and Manufactures.] Her chief exports consist of linen cloth, yarn, lawns and cambrics, which are encouraged by the English government. Wool and bay yarn are by law allowed to be exported to England only, but great quantities of both are smuggled into other countries. The other exports are horses and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, some tanned leather, calf-skins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheese, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horse-hair, lead,

lead, in no great proportion, copper-ore, herrings, dried fish, rabbit-skins, and furr, otter-skins, goat-skins, salmon, and a few other particulars.

Constitution and Government.] The constitution of the Irish government, as it stands at present, with regard to distributive justice, is nearly the same with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord lieutenant, is sent over from England by the king, whom he represents, but his power is in some measure restrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleasure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber, and having taken the usual oaths before the lord chancellor, the sword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is seated in the chair of state, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a serjeant at mace, and other officers of state; and he never appears publicly without being attended by a body of horse-guards. He has a council composed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treasurer, and such of the arch-bishops, earls, bishops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majesty is pleased to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the supreme court, which is convened by the king's writ; and generally sits once every second year. It consists, as in England, of a house of Lords and Commons. Of the former, many are English or British Peers or Commons of Great Britain; a few are papists, who cannot sit without being properly qualify'd; and the number of Commons amount to about 300. Since the accession of his present majesty, Irish parliaments have been rendered octennial. The laws are made by the house of Lords and Commons, after which they are sent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by his majesty and council, they pass the great seal of England, and are returned.

Revenues.] In Ireland the public revenue arises from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the trustee, for applying it to particular purposes; but there is besides this a private revenue arising from the ancient demesne lands, from forfeitures for treason and felony, prisage of wines, light-house duties, and a small part of the casual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the same unlimited property that a subject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a secret to the public.

Coins.] What the ancient coins of the Irish were, is now a matter of mere curiosity and great uncertainty. At present the coins of Ireland are the same with those of England, (the Irish having no mint,) but they differ in their denomination, an English shilling passing in Ireland for thirteen pence, and so of the other English coins.

Military Strength.] Those parts of Ireland that are most uncultivated contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little sense either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are absolutely necessary

cessary for keeping them in order, witness the late insurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, who were instigated by their priests. For these and other purposes 16,000 British troops are generally quartered in Ireland, where they are maintained and paid up on the Irish establishment.

History.] The Irish monks have formed a more regular plan of ancient history, for their own nation, than is to be met with in other countries, and with such plausibility, that it has been adopted by men of considerable learning in that kingdom. They have carried up a succession of great, wise, and learned kings, almost to the time of the flood, and they have made Ireland flourish in arts and sciences, especially those of government, long before they were known in Egypt, or Greece. Writers, however, after the Augustan age, have mentioned the Irish, as being no better than savages, and the most credible of the modern historians speak of them as being, in the beginning of the 15th century, a nation of barbarians, though, it may be admitted, that before this period some of their monks and clergy, who had travelled into other parts of Europe, were holy and learned men.

The Irish were converted to Christianity by St Patrick, a Scotfman, who died in 493. After this they were occasionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England, but in the year 795 and 798 the Danes and Normans, or, as they were called, the Easterlings, invaded the coasts of Ireland, and were the first who erected stone edifices in that kingdom. The habitations of the Irish, till that time, were of hurdles covered with straw and rushes, and a very few of solid timber. The natives, however, defended themselves bravely against the Easterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork, but they resided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Irish, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, seem to have called to their assistance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a considerable maritime power, and this might have given occasion for his clergy to call him king of great part of Ireland.

Though the use of letters had been by this time introduced into Ireland, yet its history is still very confused. We know, however, that it was divided among several petty princes, and that Henry II. of England, by the instigation of the Pope, had resolved to subdue them. A fair pretext offered about the year 1168. Dermot MacMurrough, king of Leinster, an oppressive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roirk. A confederacy being formed against him, under Roderick O'Connor, (who it seems was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven from his country, and took refuge at the court of Henry II. who promised to restore him upon taking an oath of fealty to the crown of England for himself, and all the petty kings depending upon him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Dermot's case to the English barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitz-Gerald. These noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the same principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conquest

quest of England under William I. and Strongbow was to marry Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169 the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strongbow arriving with a strong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The descendants of the Danes continued still possessed of Dublin, which, after some ineffectual opposition made by king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the English soldiers, but Mac-Turkil, the Danish king, escaped to his shipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, seized upon his estates in England and Wales, and recalled his subjects from Ireland. The Irish, about the same time, to the amount of about 60,000, besieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Irish friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Irish to raise the siege with great loss, and going over to England he appeased Henry by swearing fealty to him and his heirs, and resigning into his hands all the Irish cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's absence, Mac-Turkill returning with a great fleet, attempted to re-take the city of Dublin, but was killed at the siege; and in him ended the race of Easterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran soldiers, and the flower of his English nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes, of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulster, but the great king Roderick O'Connor, submitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's submission included that of Ulster, and that consequently he was the paramount sovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the estates of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England to his English nobility. He then settled a civil administration at Dublin, as near as possible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having first settled an English colony from Bristol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free customs, say their charters, which the citizens of Bristol enjoyed.

Richard I. was too much taken up with the crusades to pay much regard to the affairs of Ireland, but king John, after his accession, enlarged his father's plan, of introducing into Ireland English laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinster and Munster which was within the English pale, into twelve counties. The unsettled reign of Henry III. his wars, and captivity, gave the Irish a very mean opinion of the English government during his reign; but they seem to have continued quiet under his son Edward I. Gaveston, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland, but the successes of the Scots king Robert Bruce had almost proved fatal to the English interest in Ireland, and suggested to the Irish the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the English governors and armies, and being supported by his brother in person, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly missed being master of Dublin. The younger Bruce seems to have been violent in the exercise

of his sovereignty, and he was at last defeated and killed by Ber-
 mingham the English general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland
 with great moderation, and passed several excellent acts with regard
 to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were a-
 gain renewed in Ireland; and not suppressed without great loss and
 disgrace on the side of the English. In 1333 a rebellion broke out,
 in which the English inhabitants had no inconsiderable share. A
 succession of vigorous, brave governors, however, at last quieted the
 insurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, son to Edward
 III. having married the heiress of Ulster, was sent over to govern
 Ireland, and, if possible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire con-
 formity with the laws of England. In this he made great progress,
 but did not entirely accomplish it.

In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his despotic
 schemes in England must be abortive without farther support, passed
 over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men well armed and ap-
 pointed. As he made no use of force, the Irish looked upon his
 presence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the
 magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted
 them by all the arts he could employ, and bestowed the honour of
 knighthood on their chiefs. In short, he behaved so as to entirely
 win their affections. In 1399, Richard being then despotic in Eng-
 land, undertook a fresh expedition into Ireland to revenge the death
 of his lord lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the
 wild Irish. His army again struck the natives with consternation,
 and they threw themselves upon his mercy. It was during this ex-
 pedition that the duke of Lancaster landed in England, and Richard
 upon his return finding himself deserted, and that he could not de-
 pend upon the Irish, surrendered his crown to his rival.

Henry VIII. governed Ireland by supporting its chiefs against
 each other, but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V.
 upon which Henry made his natural son, the duke of Richmond,
 his lord lieutenant. This did not prevent the Irish from breaking
 out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz-Gerald, who had been
 lord deputy, and who was won over by the emperor, but was at last
 hanged at Tyburn.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed some
 pretensions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a strong
 party among the Irish themselves. Henry understood that the Irish
 had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hi-
 therto assumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He
 therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with
 the native Irish, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord.
 It produced a more perfect submission of the native Irish to Henry's
 government than ever had been known, and even O'Neil, who pre-
 tended to be the last paramount king of Ireland, swore allegiance to
 Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone; and since this time, no
 attempt of any consequence has been made by the Irish, to throw off
 the English yoke.

I S L E O F M A N.

THE length of this island from North to South is about thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the island is fifty-four degrees, sixteen minutes North. It is said, that on a clear day, the three Britannie kingdoms may be seen from this island. The air here is wholesome, and the climate, only making allowance for the situation, pretty much the same as that in the North of England, from which it does not differ much in other respects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champagne fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains which as it were divides the island, both protects and fertilizes the valleys, where there is good pasturage. The better sort of inhabitants have good sizeable hories, and a small kind, which are swift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffings, which breed in rabbit holes, are almost a lump of fat, and esteemed very delicious. It is said that this island abounds with iron, and copper mines, tho' unwrought, as are the quarries of marble, slate, and stone.

The Isle of Man contains seventeen parishes and four towns on the sea-coasts. Castle-town is the metropolis of the island, and the seat of its government; Peele, which of late years, begins to flourish; Douglas, which has the best market and best trade in the island, as well as the richest and most populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the sea; Ramsay has likewise a considerable comineree, on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds excepting the North-East. The reader, by throwing his eyes upon the map, may see how conveniently this island is situated for being the storehouse of smugglers, which it was till within these few years, to the inexpressible prejudice of his majesty's revenue; and this necessarily leads us to touch upon the history of the island.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the seas which we have before mentioned, this island was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected, from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in history; and though we have no regular account of their succession, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for some ages masters of those seas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a spirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the superiority of Man, and obliged Owen, or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It seems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings

of England, from that time, exercised the superiority over the island; though we find it still possessed by the posterity of its Danish princes, in the reign of Edward III. who dispossessed the last queen of the island, and bestowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Salisbury. His family being forfeited, Henry IV. bestowed Man, and the patronage of the bishoprick, first upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon Sir John Stanely, whose posterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the sister of the late lord Derby. Reasons of state rendered it necessary for the crown of Great Britain to purchase the customs and the island from the Athol family, and the bargain was completed, by 70,000*l.* being paid to the duke in 1765. The Duke, however, retains his territorial property in the island, though the form of its government is altered, and the king has now the same rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the dukes formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, also, retain many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

The established religion in Man is that of the church of England. The king has now the nomination of the bishop, who is called bishop of Sodor and Man; and he enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of other bishops, but does not sit in the British House of Peers, his see never having been erected into an English barony. The ecclesiastical government is well kept up in this island, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is spoken by the common people, is radically Erse, or Irish, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Testament and Common Prayer-Book have been translated into the Manks language. The natives, who are said to amount to above 20,000, are inoffensive, charitable, and hospitable. The better sort live in stone houses; and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. The products for exportation consist of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign shipping for commodities they may have occasion for from other parts. Before the South promontory of Man, is a little island called the Calf of Man; it is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This island affords some curiosities which may amuse an antiquary. They consist chiefly of Runic sepulchral inscriptions, and monuments of ancient brass daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are sometimes dug up, and seem to indicate the splendor of its ancient possessors.

In the English channel are four islands subject to England; these are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY was known to the Romans; and lies farthest within the bay, in 49 degrees, 7 minutes North latitude, and in the second de-

gree 26 minutes West longitude, 18 miles West of Normandy. The North is inaccessible through lofty cliffs, the South is almost level with the water; the higher land in its midland part is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The valleys are fruitful, and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of stockings. The honey in Jersey is remarkably fine; and the island is well supplied with fish and wild-fowl almost of every kind, some of them being peculiar to the island, and very delicious.

The island is not above twelve miles in length, but the air is so salubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was said that there was no business for a physician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve parishes. The capital town is St Helier, which contains above 400 houses, and makes a handsome appearance. The property of this island belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal interest, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the British dominions durst recognise him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which most of them intermingle English words. Knit stockings, and caps form their staple commodity, but they carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which is as it were a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from South-West to North-East, and twelve and a half where broadest, East and West; but has only ten parishes, to which there are eight ministers, four of the parishes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernsey, having one a-piece. Though this is a much finer island than that of Jersey, yet it is far less valuable, because it is not so well cultivated, nor is it so populous. It abounds in cyder; and the inhabitants speak French: but want of firing is the greatest inconveniency that both islands labour under. The only harbour here is at St Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old-Castle, the other Castle-Cornet. Guernsey is likewise part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet, otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. This island is healthy, and the soil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK

SARK is a small island depending upon Guernsey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniences of life. The inhabitants of the three last mentioned islands are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four islands is that of the church of England, though formerly the inhabitants were Calvinists.

TURKEY.

THE dominions of the Grand Signior, or the Turkish empire, although comprehending several ancient nations, are usually called Turkey, and lie partly in Europe, partly in Asia, and partly in Africa.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Situation and Extent.] **B**etween the latitudes of thirty-six and forty-six degrees North, and about six hundred miles; and between the longitudes of seventeen and forty degrees East, about one thousand miles.

Boundaries.] Bounded on the North by Russia, Poland, and Sclavonia.

On the South by the Mediterranean sea.

On the East by Circassia, the Black sea, Archipelago, and their communication.

On the West by the Mediterranean and the territories of the Venetians and Austrians.

The Turkish territories in Europe may be considered under the following seven principal divisions:

I. On the North coast of the Black-sea, part of the ancient *Sarmatia*.

II. North of the river Danube, part of the ancient *Dacia*.

III. South of the Danube, part of the ancient *Myfia*.

IV. On the Bosphorus and Hellespont, the ancient *Thrace*.

V. South of Mount Rhodope, or *Argentum*, the North part of ancient *Greece*.

VI. On the Adriatic sea, the ancient *Illyricum*.

VII. On the Morea, the ancient *Peloponnesus*, or South division of *Greece*.

Subdivision.

Subdivision.	Chief towns.	Subdivision.	Chief towns.
I. Crim Tartary.	Precop Kaffa Baschiseria	V. Macedonia	Strymon Centessa
Budziac Tartary	Oczakow	Thessaly Achaia, and Bæotia	Salonichi Athens Thebes Lepantó
II. Bessarabia	Bender	VI. Epirus	Chimæra Butrinto
Moldavia	Jassy	Albania	Durazzo
	Chotzim	Dalmatia	Dulcigno
	Falczin		Dorino
Walachia	Tergoviste	Raguza re- public	Narenza Ragusa
III. Bulgaria	Widen	VII. Corinthia	Corinth
	Nicopoli	Argo	Argos
	Silistria		Napoli de Ro- mania
	Scopia	Sparta	Misera
Servia	Belgrade	Olympia	Longinica
	Nissa	Arcadia	Modon
Bosnia	Semandria		Coron
	Seraio	Ellis	Patras Belvidere
IV. Romania	Constantinople		
	Adriahople		
	Philippopoli		

Soil, Air, Seasons, and Water.] Nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey, all her blessings in these four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence or uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regular, and pleasant, and have been celebrated from the remotest times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholesomeness of the water all over their dominions.

Mountains.] Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Egean sea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parassus, so famous for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known. Mount Hæmus is likewise often mentioned by the Poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names. Even the most celebrated mountains above-mentioned, have had modern names imposed upon them, by the barbarians in their neighbourhood.

Rivers.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in the country, though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

Vegetables

Vegetables and Productions.] These are excellent all over the European Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Besides pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Besides these, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

Animals.] The Thessalian, or Turkish horses, are excellent both for their beauty and service. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are a most valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Babadagi, furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish and Tartar archers, and they sell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece, as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds, all over Turkey in Europe, but the Turks and Mahometans in general, are not very fond of animal food.

Antiquities and Curiosities, natural and artificial.] Almost every spot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, presents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world, and to particularize them would be endless. The temple of Minerva, is thought by some to be the finest extant. The temple of the eight winds, and the lantern of Demosthenes, are still entire. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo, are still visible at Castri, on the South side of mount Parnassus, and the marble steps that descend to a pleasant running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock, are still discernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadia, or the old Bœotia.

Cities.] Constantinople, the capital of this great empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Constantine the Great, as a more inviting situation than Rome, for the seat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the possession of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe, for the commodities of the East-Indies. It derived also great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders, and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment: and even at this day it is reckoned one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. It is frequently called *the Port*, by way of eminence.

The

The prospect from it is noble. It abounds with antiquities. The mosque of St Sophia; once a Christian church, is thought in some respects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St Petre's at Rome. The city itself is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of the Lesser Asia, which is not to be equalled. Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. The best authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are said to be Greeks and Armenians, and the rest are Jews and Turks. Others suppose the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000.

As to the manners, religion, government, &c. these shall be mentioned under Turkey in Asia.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO TURKEY IN EUROPE, BEING PART OF ANCIENT GREECE.

NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubœa, stretches from the South-East to the North-West, and on the Eastern coast of Achaia or Livadia. It is ninety miles long, and twenty-five broad. Here the Turkish galleys lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself abounds in corn, wine, and fruit.

LEMNOS, lies on the North part of the Egeati sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of twenty-five miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, sometimes called *terra Lemna* or *Sigillata*, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who receive therefrom a considerable revenue.

TENEDOS, is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired and left the Trojans in a fatal security.

SCYROS, is about sixty miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains.

LESBOS, or **MYTELIN**, is about sixty miles long, and is famous for the number of philosophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or **CHIOS**, lies about eighty miles West of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and above 3000 Latins. Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and shew a little square house, which they call Homer's school. The Greeks pay a capitation tax for the exercise of their religion and laws; the rate of the highest rank is ten crowns a-head, the second three, and the meanest two and a half, yearly.

SAMOS,

SAMOS, lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the South of Samos lies **PATMOS**, about twenty miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island, shew a cave where St John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The **CYCLADES** islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which lies South of the islands Maycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continents of Asia and Europe. Tho' Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS, lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

CERIGO, or **CYTHEREA**, lies South-East of the Morea, and is about fifty miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN, is one of the most Southermost islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a popish bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth, there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it arose out of the sea it was a mere volcano, but the burning soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea, and at the time of its first emerging it was about a mile broad and five miles in circumference, but it has since increased. Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, but the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of **RHODES** is situated above twenty miles South-West of the continent of Lesser-Asia, being about fifty miles long, and twenty-five broad. This island abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life, but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The colossus of brass, which anciently

flood at the mouth of its harbour, and was fifty fathoms wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world; one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passed between its legs; and it held in one hand a lighthouse for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the seat of legislature to all Greece, and many other historical and political distinctions. It lyes between 35 and 36 degrees of North latitude, being 200 miles long and sixty broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa. The famous mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the valleys of this island produce, wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS, lyes in the Levant sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 150 miles long, and seventy broad, and lyes at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and during the time of the Crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, and the see of a Greek archbishop. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to a surprising degree, though the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250*l.* a-year. Richard I. king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.

The islands in the Ionian sea are, **SAPIENZA**, **STIVALI**, **ZANTE**, **CEPHALONIA**, **SANTA MAURA**, **CORFU**, and others of smaller note, particularly **ISOLA DEL COMPARE**, which would not deserve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses.

Those

Those islands in general are fruitful. Zante, belonging to the Venetians, has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in fruits. Corfu, which is the capital of that island, is a place of great strength, and belongs likewise to the Venetians, who concern themselves very little about the welfare, or government of those and other islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character.

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ASIA.

THE continent of Asia is situated between 25 and 180 degrees of East longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of North latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanel on the West, to the Eastern shore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the most Southern part of Malacca, to the most Northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen ocean on the North; on the West it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the East, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, which separates it from America; and on the South, by the Indian Ocean; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow:



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Kingdoms and states.	Position.	Religion.	Chief towns.	Climate.
TURKEY in ASIA, including the Lesser Asia, and some other provinces.	West and S. W.	Mahometans and some Christians	Bursa	VII.
			Smyrna	VI.
			Aleppo	VI.
			Jerusalem	V.
			Damascus	V.
ARABIA	S. W.	Mahometans	Mecca	II.
			Medina	III.
			Mocha	I.
PERSIA, including part of Circassia, Mingrelia, and Usbeck Tartary.	S. S. W.	Mahometans	Isfahan	IV.
			Schiras	IV.
			Gombrun	III.
			Mesched	V.
INDIA, West the Ganges	South	Mahometans	Delhi	IV.
		and	Agra	IV.
		Pagans	Laho	V.

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Kingdoms and states.	Position.	Religion.	Chief towns.	Climate.
INDIA, East the Ganges comprehending Acham, Ava, Arracan, Pegu, Siam, Laos, Malacca, Cambodia, Chiamapa, Tonquin, and Cochinchina.	S. S. E.	Pagans	Acham	IV.
			Ava	III.
			Arracan	III.
			Pegu	III.
			Siam	II.
			Malacca	I.
			Laos	III.
			Cambodia	II.
			Chiampa	II.
CHINA, including Korea.	S. E.	Pagans	Keceio	II.
			Thoanoa	II.
			Pekin	VI.
CHINESE TARTARY.	East	Pagans	Nankin	V.
			Canton	III.
CHYNIAN.				III.
THIBET and MOGUL TARTARY.	East	Pagans	Chynian	VII.
THIBET	Mid.	Pagans	Thibet	V.
SIBERIA, comprehending all the North of Asiatic Tartary and Astracan.	N. E. and North.	Christians and Pagans	Tobolski Astracan	XL VIII.
Also,				
Calmtic Tartary	N. W.			
The Samoieds	North.	Pagans	The natives live in tents or huts, and ramble from place to place.	
The Ostiacks, and Bradski Tartars.				

10. The Asiatic islands, which consist of part of the Turkish islands in the Archipelago and Levant; and the Oriental islands in the Indian ocean, of which those of Japan, Formosa, Anyan, the Philippines, Celebes, or Macassar, Gilolo, Ceram, Moluccos, Banda, Borneo, Java, Sumatra, Ceylon, Bally, Flores, Timor; the Nicobar, Andoman, and Maldiva islands, are the most remarkable.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Situation and Extent. } Between the latitudes of 28 and 45 degrees North, and between the longitudes 27 and 45 degrees East.

These

These limits include the Levant and the Black sea, which together comprehend about a third part of the whole extent.

Boundaries.] Bounded on the North by the Black sea and Circassia; on the South by Arabia on the Levant sea; on the East by Persia; on the West by the Archipelago and Hellespont, which separate it from Europe.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
The Eastern provinces are	1 Eyraco Arabic or Chaldea, or Babylonia	Bassora and Bagdat.
	2 Diarbec or Mesopotamia	Djarbec, Orfa, and Mousoul.
	3 Curdistan or Assyria	Nineveh and Betlis.
	4 Turcomania or Armenia major	Erserum and Van.
	5 Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretia, and part of Circassia	Amarchia and Gönje.
Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the West	1 Natolia Proper, olim Asia minor	Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus.
	2 Armasia formerly Pontus and Cappadocia	Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	3 Aladnia or Armenia minor	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4 Caramania, olim Lycia, Cilicia, &c.	Satalia and Terasso.
East of the Levant sea	Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land	Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jerusalem.

Mountains.] The most remarkable are, Olympus; Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucasus and Arrarat; Lebanon; and Hermon.

Rivers.] The most remarkable rivers, are the Euphrates; Tigris; Orantes; Meander; Sarabat; Kara; and Jordan.

Air and Climate.] Though both are delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a frightful scourge of mankind, wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in predestination, which prevents them from using precaution to defend themselves against this calamity.

Soil and Produce.] This country produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw-silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee,







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see, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in those provinces, are highly delicious, and in such plenty that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in largeness.

Animal Productions by Sea and Land.] The breed of the Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. Camels are here in much request, from their strength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their numerous herds of goats furnish the materials for their camblets. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eating, and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe; but their other butcher's meat, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, they have wild-fowl in vast perfection; their ostriches are well known by their alness, stupidity, and heaviness.

Metals and Minerals.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richest kingdoms and provinces of Europe; and its medicinal springs and baths exceed those of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diverses. } THE number of inhabitants in this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility; nor have the best geographers been able to ascertain, because of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian era, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to the tyranny under which the natives live; and the polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population. The plague is another cause of depopulation. The Turkish emperor, however, has more subjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robust men; when young their complexions are fair, and their faces handsome; their hair and eyes are black, or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handsome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanor the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, sedate, and assive; but when agitated by passion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with dissimulation, jealous, suspicious, and vindictive beyond conception; in matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and more. The morals of the Asiatic Turks are far preferable to those of the Europeans. They are hospitable to strangers; and the

the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewise said to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public spirit is most conspicuous in their building caravanserai or places of entertainment on roads that are destitute of accommodations, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travellers. The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are simple and conined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses, where they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, and chewing opium. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own, or any other country. They have few printed books, and seldom read any other than the Alcoran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents; and here justice may be bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they sup at five in the Winter and six in the Summer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people their dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife or fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high-seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, sometimes it is boiled up with gray; but their chief dish is pila, which is mutton and fowl boiled in rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is high-seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of high rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate and sober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine; tho' in private many of them indulge themselves in the use of strong liquors. Their common salutation is an inclination of the head, and laying their right hands on their breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diversion.

Their active diversions consist in shooting a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Within doors, the chess or draught-board are their usual amusement; and if they play at chance games, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Alcoran.

Dress.] The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their stockings; and instead of shoes they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no Christians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dress of the women differs but little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps up-

on their heads with horns something like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexion, but they often tinge their hands and feet with henna, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards.

Marriages, in this country, are chiefly negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity, and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. A man may marry as many women as he can maintain, but under the restriction of a censorial power, to prevent too great a plurality of wives. Besides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of seraglio of women; but all these indulgences are sometimes insufficient to gratify their unnatural desires.

Religion.] The established religion is the Mahometan, so called from Mahomet the author of it; some account of which the reader will find in the following history of Arabia, the native country of that impostor. The Turks profess that of the sect of Omar; but these are split into as many sectaries as their neighbours the Christians. There is no ordination among their clergy, any person may be a priest that pleases to take the habit and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleases. Their chief priest, or musti, seems to have great power in the state.

The Turkish government having formed the ecclesiastical institutions of the Christians into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they are most profitable, but the hardships imposed upon the Greek church are such as must always dispose that people to favour any revolution of government. Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchs; and their heads are indulged according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an ecclesiastical authority over their votaries. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Arminian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege has its archbishop or bishop.

Language.] The radical languages of this empire are the Slavonian, which seems to have been the mother tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but still bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic, and the Syriac, a dialect of which is still spoken. A specimen of the modern Greek follows in their Pater-noster.

Pater hemas, opior iso ees tor ouranous : bagia sbito to onoma sou : na erti he basilia sou : to thelema sou na genetex itzon en te ge, os is ton ouranon : to psomi hemas doze hemas semoren : ka si chorase hemas ta crimata demon itzone, ka hemas sicborasomen ekincus opou : mas adikounka men ternes bemaïs is to pirasmo, alla soston hemas apo to caxo. Amen.

Antiquities and Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] Those countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture, and sculpture, and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished their number. They are more or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate, in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those which remain in ruins. Amidst such a plenitude of curiosities, all that can be done here is to select some of the most striking.

The remains of Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli in Syria, and Damascus, and display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court, behind it, is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. Their walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now so ruined that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter, and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns, for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto-relief, expressing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the ancient mythology. To the West of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses.

Balbec is at present a little city, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free-stone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furnished the stones for the body of the temple, and one of the stones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is seventy feet long, fourteen broad, and fourteen feet five inches deep, and reduced to our measure is 1135 tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petraea, about 33 degrees North latitude, and 200 miles to the South-East of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the sun lies in ruins, but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticos, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest stile, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Those striking ruins are
contrasted

contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that so superb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of tracts of barren uninhabitable sands. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the Eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the Western nations, for the merchandizes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the most fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon, and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony, and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus.

Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly carested by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for some time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. None of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian era, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its present wretched state. It has been observed very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbec.

Mecca and Medina are curiosities only through the superstition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houses or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a sorry appearance, though erected on the spot where the great prophet is said to have been born. The same may be said of the Mosque at Medina, where that impostor was buried.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many valuable antiquities, as well as Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical observations. The seat of old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its lying opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river.

Provinces, chief Cities, Mosques, and other Buildings.] Scanderoon stands upon the site of Alexandretta, but it is now almost depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however preserves a respectable rank among the cities of

the Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. Its houses, as is usual in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the same in the middle. Aleppo, and its suburbs, are seven miles in compass, and contain 236,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Christians, and 5000 are Jews. It is furnished with most of the conveniences of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanseras, or large square buildings, containing their ware-houses, lodging-rooms, and counting-houses. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury, and their sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendor and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, here and over all Arabia, and many other parts of the East; for which reason their houses are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance those nations had with astronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains some parts of the holy scripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkish cities.

Bagdat, built upon the Tygris, is the capital of the ancient Chaldaea, and was once the metropolis of the Califate, under the Saracens, the most powerful monarchy on earth. It retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is rudely fortified, but the convenience of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and Western caravans.

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Kurdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Kurdistan; the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Kurdistan is said to be, for the most part, cut out of a mountain; and is the residence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg-Orsa, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the fine province of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture of Turkey leather.

Georgia, or Gurgistan, though subject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Christians, a brave, warlike race of men, and often at war with the Mahometans. Their capital, Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000. The Georgians in general are by some travellers said to be the handsomest people in the world; and some think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the small-pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and privileges.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon, still retain part
of

of their former trade. Damascus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpressibly beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. It still is famous for its steel works, such as sword-blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants still manufacture those beautiful silks called Damasks, from their city, and carry on a considerable traffic in raw and worked silk; rose-water, extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is still beautiful, especially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, which likewise lyes within the ancient Phenicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour. Tyre, now called Sur, about twenty miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now only inhabited by a few miserable fishermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur.

Natolia, or Asia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycoania, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amasia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, are now, through the Turkish insolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible, and so luxurious is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. The selfish Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themselves, and their gardens and summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of those countries, fully vindicate all that has been said by sacred and prophane writers of their beauty, strength, fertility, and population. Even Palestine and Judea, the most despicable at present of all those countries, lyes buried within the luxuries of its own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing it in the most dreadful colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by some among ourselves, have imposed upon weak Christians *.

Constitution and Government.] The Turkish government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary

* The late reverend Dr Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy, to make the most just observations, says, that was the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phoenicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness, says he, of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country.

Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine, says Mr Wood, we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed." And, after all, whoever sows is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of Sir James Potter, who resided at the Porte, in quality of ambassador from his Britannic majesty, it appears that the rigours of that despotic government are considerably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary succession to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and secure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconsiderable expence. Even Jews and Christians may in this manner secure the enjoyments of their lands to the latest posterity; and so sacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no instance of an attempt on the side of the prince to trespass or reverse it. Neither does the observance of this institution altogether depend on the superstition of the sultan; he knows that any attempt to violate it would shake the foundations of his throne, which is solely supported by the laws of religion. Were he to trespass these laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceases to be the lawful sovereign. The same observation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was designed by Mahomet, both as a political code, and as a religious system. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to support them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obscure, or extend and compleat what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the first institution of the prophet; and no member of the society, however powerful, can transgress them without censure, or violate them without punishment.

The Asiatic Turks, or rather subjects of the Turkish empire, who hold their possessions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their serving in the field with a particular number of men, think themselves, while they perform that agreement, almost independent of his majesty, who seldom calls for the head or the estate of a subject, who is not an immediate servant of the court. The most unhappy subjects of the Turkish government are those who approach the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the visir, or prime visir; the chiayia, second in power to the visir, the reis effendi, or secretary of state, are the most considerable. These, as well as the musti, or high priest, the bashaws, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised by their application and assiduity, from the meanest stations in life, and are often the children of Tartar, or Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence, through a thousand difficulties and dangers, these men are generally as distinguished for abilities as deficient in virtue. They possess all the dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in a humble rank, and they have a farther reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities to which they are arrived. The administration of justice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded on very equitable principles.

Revenues.]

Revenues.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire must be immense. The revenues arise from the customs, and a variety of taxes, which fall chiefly on the Christians, and other subjects not of the Mahometan religion. Another branch of the revenue arises from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All these, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the name of presents. These harpies, to indemnify themselves, as we have already observed, exercise every species of oppression that their avarice can suggest, till becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries they are sent to govern, their riches frequently give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accusers; but, without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched, with an imperial decree to take off his head. The unhappy *bassa* receives it with the highest respect, putting it on his head, and, after he has read it, says, *The will of God and the emperor be done*, or some such expression, testifying his entire resignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has ready in his bosom, and having tied it about his own neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and drawing the cord strait, soon dispatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

Forces.] The militia of the Turkish empire is of two sorts; the first have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treasury. Those that have certain lands amount to about 268,000 troopers, effective men. Besides these, there are also certain auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and Georgians, who are commanded by their respective princes. In every war, besides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of succeeding the officers. These adventurers do not only promise themselves an estate if they survive, but are taught, that if they die in a war against the Christians, they shall go immediately to paradise. The forces, which receive their pay from the treasury, are called the *Spahis*, or horse-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the *janizaries*, or foot-guards, are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies, and on them they principally depend in an engagement. These amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Constantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded so far sometimes as to depose the sultan. They are educated in the *seraglio*, and trained up to the exercise of arms from their infancy; and there are not less than 100,000 foot soldiers, scattered over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of *janizaries*, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction but that of their *aga*, or chief commander.

Arms and Titles.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of Eastern magnificence. He is stiled by his subjects, *The shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Disposer of all Earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand signior's arms are, vert, a crescent argent, crested with a turbant, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Denec totum impleat orbem.*

Court and Seraglio.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths, who are designed for the state, the army, or the navy; but they are seldom preferred till they are about forty years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of Christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presents from the viceroys or governors of distant provinces, the most beautiful, well-made, and sprightly children, that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the signior before they are sent to the colleges, or seminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. On their admission they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. These ladies are scarce ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand signior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are inclosed with lattices; and, when they go by land, they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs with great quickness; and some dwarfs, who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

History.] It has been the fate of the most Southern and fertile parts of Asia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vast country, known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name signifies Wanderers, extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian, to the straits of the Dardanelles. Being long resident, in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom, and spread their ravages all over the neighbouring countries. They never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declension of the califate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting the holy city of Jerusalem being then part of the Christian exercises,

exercises, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such horrid cruelties upon the Christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the famous Crusades.

It unfortunately happened that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progress of the Christians than the Turks; and, though after oceans of blood were spilt, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem under Godfrey of Bouillon, neither he nor his successors were possessed of any real power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1347, had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves, under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, first embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader, the appellation of Turks, as it signifies, in the original, wanderers, or banished men, being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes that are mentioned in history. About the year 1357 they passed the Hellespont, and got a footing in Europe; and Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople. Such was their conquests, that Bajazet I. after defeating the Greek Emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Tamerlane, who was just then returned from his Eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, in which Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himself taken prisoner. The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians and Hungarians, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II. took Constantinople in 1453. But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist, particularly in Constantinople, and the neighbouring islands, where, though under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still preserve somewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles which distinguished their ancestors.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed by the submission of all Greece, and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II. who carried on the war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Persians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harassed by family-differences, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, he was poisoned by a Jew physician.

Selim afterwards ordered his elder brother, Achmet, to be strangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians and the Prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, af-

ter many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, as he did Aleppo, Achmet, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded, in 1520, by his son, Soliman the Magnificent; who taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that island to Malta, which was given them by the Emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land; but he miscarried in an attempt he made to take the isle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkish marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkish power, had the blow been pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis, in Africa, from the Moors. He was succeeded, in 1575, by his son, Amurath III. who forced the Persians to cede Taurus, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewise took the important fortress of Raab, in Hungary; in 1593, he was succeeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is distinguished, by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the Christians; and died of the plague in 1604. Though his successor, Achmet, was beaten by the Persians, yet he forced the Austrians to a treaty in 1606, and to consent that he should keep what he was possessed of in Hungary. Osman, a prince of great spirit, but no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, was put to death by the janizaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdat from the Persians. His brother, Ibrahim, succeeded him in 1640; a worthless, inactive prince, and strangled by the janizaries in 1648. His successor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well served by his Grand Visir, Cuperli. He took Candy from the Venetians, after it had been besieged for thirty years. This conquest cost the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is said, 180,000. A bloody war succeeded between the Imperialists and the Turks, in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna, but were forced to raise it with great loss, by John Sobieski, king of Poland, and other Christian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, shut up in prison by his subjects, and succeeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during this reign, and that of his brother and successor, Achmet II. but Mustapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in person, and, after some brisk campaigns, he was defeated by Prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialists and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Mustapha was deposed, his Musti was beheaded, and his brother, Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles

XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Russians by a glorious peace concluded at Pruth. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was translated to Hungary, where the Imperial General, Prince Eugene, gave so many repeated defeats to the Infidels, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace, at Passarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Persians, under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace demanded the heads of the Visir, the chief Admiral, and the Secretary, which were accordingly struck off; but Achmet was deposed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognize that usurper as Sophi of Persia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialists and Russians; against the former he was victorious, but the successes of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, forced him to agree to a hasty treaty with the Emperor, and after that to another with the Russians, which was greatly to his disadvantage. Mahomet died in 1754. He was succeeded by his brother Osman III. who died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother Mustapha III. born in 1723. In this prince's reign commenced the most unsuccessful war in which the Turks were ever engaged, and which even seemed to threaten the dissolution of their empire. The two most extensive empires of Europe are Russia and Turkey; and as their dominions border on each other, and the inhabitants of both are still in a rude state, it may naturally be supposed that they will have an antipathy against each other. Formerly indeed the affair of religion alone would have been sufficient to begin a war between Turks and Christians, without any thing else; but even the superstition of the Mohammedans hath long been considerably declined, and the present war commenced on very different motives. These have already been explained under the article Poland; and in consequence of the transactions there mentioned, about the end of March 1769, a body of Russian troops made themselves masters of the important fortress of Asoph, at the mouth of the river Don. In the end of April, Prince Gallitzin, commander in chief of the Russian army on the frontiers of Poland, passed the river Niester, hoping to take the fortress of Choczim by surprise; but being disappointed, he was obliged to return. Near the beginning of July, however, he again passed that river, and on the 13th attacked and defeated the van of the Grand Visir's army, consisting of about 50 or 60,000 men. Thirteen thousand of the fugitives entered Choczim; which was next day invested by the Russians; but they were at last obliged to raise the siege, and repass the Niester, which they could not effect without considerable loss.

In the mean time, both the Ottoman and Russian courts were displeased with the conduct of their generals. The Turkish Grand Visir was deprived of his command, and afterwards beheaded; and was succeeded by Moldovani Aga Pacha, a man of a bold and enterprising spirit. On his first taking the command of the army, finding it impossible to subsist where he was, he attempted to force a passage over the Niester; but being three times repulsed with great loss, he made a precipitate retreat towards Bender, at the same time drawing the troops out of Choczim; which the Russians immediately took possession of.

Prince Gallitzin was now superseded by General Romanzow, who took the command of the army on the 29th of September. Soon after his arrival, he received news of the success of General Elmpf, who, with a body of 10,000 men, had reduced the province of Yassy. He invested Bender; but finding the season of the year too far advanced, he soon withdrew his troops, and put them into winter-quarters.

This first campaign had proved so unpropitious to the Turkish affairs, that the court would gladly have concluded a peace, if they could have obtained it upon honourable terms; but the Russians insisting upon the entire cession of Moldavia and Wallachia as a preliminary article, the negotiations came to nothing. A new campaign was therefore resolved on; and this proved still more unsuccessful than before. The grand Russian army under General Romanzow passed the Niester in the month of May 1770; and, having assembled at Choczim on the 3d of June, marched towards Pruth; at the same time their second army, commanded by General Panin, arrived before Bender. The plan of operation was, that the latter should form the siege of Bender, and Romanzow should cover it.

On the 18th of July, General Romanzow attacked an army of 80,000 Turks and Tartars, commanded by the Khan of Crimea, and strongly intrenched on an almost inaccessible mountain, forced their intrenchments, and obliged them to flee in the utmost confusion, leaving an immense quantity of ammunition and provisions, &c. in their camp; which they totally abandoned to the victors.—After this victory, the Russian General pushed on towards the Danube; and, on the 2d of August, attacked another Turkish army, commanded by the Grand Visir in person, and totally defeated it, making himself master of their camp, ammunition, 143 pieces of cannon, and above 7000 carriages loaded with provisions. The loss of the Turks on this occasion was not reckoned less than 40,000 men; and some accounts raised it to 60,000. During the course of this summer also, the fortress of Kilia Nova, at the most northerly mouth of the Danube, surrendered by capitulation; and likewise that of Ackerman, or Bialogorod, near the mouth of the Niester. Bender was taken by storm on the 27th of November; and the Russians, enraged at the obstinate resistance they had met with, made a terrible slaughter of their enemies. It was computed, that 30,000 Turks perished on this occasion. The fortress of Brailow, situated on the northern side of the Danube, was invested on the 26th of September; and the garrison were so much intimidated by the taking of Bender, that they abandoned the place, and most of them were drowned in crossing the river. During this campaign, it was reckoned that the Russians took 1000 pieces of cannon from their enemies.

This year also a Russian fleet of sixteen or eighteen ships entered the Mediterranean, and landed a body of troops on the Morea. These being joined by the Greeks, committed great cruelties on the Turks, and made themselves masters of almost the whole country. At last, however, the Porte, notwithstanding their bad success in other parts, found means to send a force into the Morea sufficient to overpower the Russians. The Greeks now suffered in their turn; and the Russians, hearing that a Turkish fleet had passed the Dardanelles, abandoned

abandoned the Morea, and failed to meet their antagonists. A battle ensued, in which the Turks were defeated; and having imprudently retired into a neighbouring harbour, they were next day entirely destroyed by the Russian fire-ships, except one ship of sixty-four guns, which was taken. This fleet consisted of fifteen ships of the line, from ninety-six to sixty guns, three large frigates, and seven large armed vessels, besides galleys. After this victory, the Russian fleet blocked up the mouth of the Dardanelles, interrupted the Turkish trade, prevented the carrying of provisions to Constantinople by sea, and raised contributions from most of the islands in the Archipelago.

In 1771, matters did not at first go on so successfully on the part of the Russians. On the side of the Danube, they were obliged to keep on the defensive. Another army, under Prince Dolgorucki, had better success; they reduced the whole peninsula of Crim Tartary in less than a month, though defended by an army of 50,000 men. During these transactions the Turks made themselves masters of the fortrefs of Giurgewo, which enabled them to become so formidable on the side of Wallachia, that Prince Repnin durst not attack them. Upon his refusal to do so, he was deprived of his command; which was given to General Essen. On the 17th of August he attacked the Turkish intrenchments; but, after a desperate engagement of four hours, was defeated, with the loss of upwards of 3000 men.

This was the only engagement of any consequence in which the Turks had proved victorious since the beginning of the war; and, after it, their usual bad fortune attended them. In consequence of their victory, they determined to winter on the northern side of the Danube, which would have been of the utmost service to them; and with which view they considerably reinforced their army in Wallachia: but General Romanzow, by a train of masterly dispositions, not only thwarted all their schemes, but surprised them on their own side of the river. They had divided their army into great bodies, which were stationed in the nearest and most important posts on the Turkish side of the Danube. On the 20th of October one of these bodies was surprised at Tuliza, by General Weisman, and another at Maczin by General Milarodowits. The event was the same in both places. The intrenchments were forced, the Turks totally routed, and their artillery, stores, and magazines, taken, together with the two towns and their castles. Next day General Weisman attacked the Grand Visir himself, with the like success. The intrenchments were forced, a vast quantity of artillery taken, and likewise the town and castle of Babadagh; while the Visir, with the remains of his army, fled thirty miles to seek refuge at Mount Hemus. A few days afterwards General Essen defeated another body of Turks, and retook the fortrefs of Giurgewo, driving the enemy totally out of Wallachia. The Russian fleet this year spread ruin and desolation through the defenceless islands of the Archipelago, and the coasts of Asia, striking terror into the city of Constantinople itself. A dreadful pestilence raged this year in the Turkish army; and in the autumn broke out at Moscow, where it destroyed vast numbers.

The affairs of the Turks were now in such a desperate condition, that they very eagerly sued for peace. The only conditions on which this could be obtained, however, were, that the Crimea, Budziac
Tartary,

Tartary, and all that vast tract of country on the coast of the Black Sea, as far as the north shore of the Danube, should continue forever under the dominion of Russia; that the Russians should enjoy an unlimited freedom of navigation on the Black Sea, together with the possession of the city of Azoph, on the mouth of the Don; and that a sum of money should be paid them by way of indemnification for the expences of the war. These terms, however, were rejected; and the negotiations, which continued through the whole year 1772, at last came to nothing. The commissioners on both sides retired from Bucharest, the place where the congress was held, on the 22d of March 1773. For some time a desultory kind of war was carried on between detachments from the two armies; but as this was very prejudicial to the Russians, who could not be so easily recruited as the Turks, about the middle of June, Romanzow made preparations for passing the Danube with the grand Russian army, consisting of 87,000 men; which, however, he did not accomplish till the 24th; and then marched with his army, in large divisions, towards the city of Silistria. He was terribly harrassed on his march by large bodies of the Turkish cavalry, of whom the Grand Visir had detached 27,000 for this purpose. At last, they arrived before the city, which was strongly fortified, and defended by a body of troops, consisting of about 24,000 men. On the 29th of June, this body was defeated, by General Weisman, who commanded the van of the Russian army, and forced to retire into Silistria. The Grand Visir then detached 50,000 men to the relief of the place; upon which the Russians found it necessary to retreat; and this was not accomplished without very great difficulty and loss. In this retreat General Weisman was killed, and the army left all their magazines behind them.

Many other severe conflicts happened this campaign, which proved less glorious to the Russians than any of the former ones. But in 1774, their arms were attended with better success. Romanzow's army was reinforced by 40,000 men, and, on the night between the 16th and 17th of June, passed the Danube, in spite of all opposition. A continued series of engagements then happened between the Russian generals and different bodies of the Turks: In these the latter were always defeated; and at last became so much dispirited, that a body of 40,000, or, according to some accounts, of 70,000 Turks, fled at the first sight of a body of their enemies, greatly inferior in number, leaving behind them all their tents and baggage, with a fine train of brass artillery. From this time, disorder, mutiny, and dismay, seized all the Turkish armies, and they absolutely refused to face their enemies. They plundered the baggage, robbed and murdered their officers, deserted by thousands, taking the road to Constantinople, and committing every kind of outrage by the way. The ministers of state, after having tried all methods to induce this lawless crew to return to their duty, were obliged to furnish them with vessels for their transportation into Asia. According to some accounts, no fewer than 140,000 of the Turkish troops deserted in this manner. Even in the Grand Visir's camp at Schumla, matters went on in the same manner. He was abandoned by his whole cavalry; his European and Asiatic troops quarrelled, and cut one another to pieces before his face; and, in short, the vast army he commanded

commanded was reduced almost to nothing. The Russian general did not fail to take advantage of these misfortunes. He placed the different divisions of his army in such advantageous situations, that he totally cut off all communication between the Turkish camp and every mean of subsistence. The unfortunate Visir, therefore, was obliged at last to submit to the terms which Romanzow dictated to him. The principal articles were, the independency of the Crimea; the absolute cession of Kilburn, Kerche, and Jenickala; and all the country between the Bog and the Dniper; a free navigation in all the Turkish seas, in which was included the passage through the Dardanelles, with all the privileges and immunities which were granted to the most favoured nations. Russia gave up all her conquests, except Asoph and Taganrok. There were besides several stipulations in favour of the inhabitants of Moldavia and Wallachia, and the Greek islands, which were restored by Russia.

In all probability, the Russian court granted these terms, hard as they were, the more readily, on account of a dangerous rebellion which broke out in the dominions of the Empress. The leader of this rebellion was a Cossack, by name *Pugatscheff*; who assumed the name and character of the late unfortunate Emperor Peter III. and was joined by such numbers, that, on the 23d of December 1773, a manifesto was published against him by the Empress. Several bodies of troops also were sent against him, by whom he was most commonly defeated; notwithstanding which, he found means to maintain his ground for a considerable time. He laid siege to Orenburg, the capital of the province of that name; but it does not appear that he ever made himself master of this place, or that he possessed any considerable military abilities. On the 25th of March 1774 he was defeated by Prince Gallitzin, with the loss of 2000 men killed, and 3000 made prisoners.—A few days afterwards, however, he re-appeared at the head of a considerable army; when he was again encountered by Prince Gallitzin, and so totally defeated, that he was forced to flee, with only fourteen men to attend him. After these, and some other misfortunes, the barbarity of this impostor's temper was so greatly increased, that he committed the greatest cruelties. Having again collected his forces, he directed his rage against the nobility, whom he slaughtered without mercy, and of whom he is said to have destroyed above 1000.—At last he was entirely defeated on the 25th of August, and his troops dispersed in such a manner that he never could assemble them again. He was then forced to wander through deserts, after swimming across the Wolga, totally destitute of the necessaries of life; and at last was taken, and brought to Count Panin, just after he had killed his horse in order to feed upon him. He was tried, condemned, and executed, for his crimes; but it is said, that his instigators to revolt were never publicly known. In a letter written by the Empress, on this occasion, to the French King, she says, “I shall keep his depositions secret, that they may not aggravate the disgrace of those who set him on.”

ARABIA,

A R A B I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1300	{ between }	35 and 60 East longitude.
Breadth 1200		12 and 30 North latitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by Turkey on the North; by the gulphs of Persia or Bassora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the East; by the Indian ocean, South; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.	{ }	{ SUEZ, E. lon. 23-27. N. lat. 29-50.
	{ Haggiaz or Mecca, }	{ MECCA, E. lon. 41. N. lat. 21-45.
2. Arabia Deserta in the middle.	{ }	{ Siden. Medina.
	{ Tehama, }	{ Dhafar.
	{ Mocho, }	{ MOSCHO, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-40.
	{ }	{ Sibit.
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	{ Hadramut, }	{ Hadramut.
	{ Caffeen, }	{ Caffeen.
	{ Segur, }	{ Segur.
	{ Oman or Muscat, }	{ Muscat.
	{ Jamama, }	{ Jamama.
	{ Bahara, }	{ Eleali.

Name.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandize pass through the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

Mountains.] The most noted are the mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, East of the Red Sea, and those called Gabel-el-Ared, in Arabia Felix.

Rivers, Seas, Gulphs, and Capes.] There are few fountains, springs,
or

or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the North-East limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian ocean, the Red Sea, the gulphs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

Climate, Air, Soil, and Produce.] The air in this country is excessive dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains, by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. This country is never, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. The Southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea-coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. But this country is most famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarce any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

Animals.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by providence for traversing the dry and parched deserts of this country, for they are so formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their stomach into their throat, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800 weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel, that will travel many miles a-day. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees the water is not far off, and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell it at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Dress.] The Arabians are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy complexion; with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be a brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done

since they became a nation. In general, they are such thieves by nature, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations, through motives of devotion or curiosity, are struck with terror on their approaches towards the Desarts. Those robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that so late as the year 1758, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea-coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel they can master, of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vast of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their heads. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the Eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges, water, and sugar, is their usual drink; they have no strong liquors.

Religion.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are still Pagans, but the people in general profess Mahometanism.

Learning and Language.] Though the Arabians, in former ages, were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarce a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabick, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin is amongst the Europeans, and used by Mahometans in their worship; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other; they look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say, they have no fewer than 1000 terms to express the word *camel*, and 500 for that of a *lion*. The Pater-noster in the Arabic is as follows.

Ahuna Elladhi fi-samwat; jetkaddas esmâc; tati malacutac: taouri maschiatac, cama fi-sama; kedbalec ala lardb aating chodzena kefatna iaum beiaawn; wagfor lena donubena, wachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; wald tadaltchalna fi-hajarib; laken mejjina me-mescherir. Amen.

Chief Cities, Curiosities, and Arts.] What is called the Desert of Sinai,

Sinai, is a beautiful plain, near nine miles long and above three in breadth; it lyes open to the North-East, but to the Southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.

From Mount Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning-bush. On those mountains are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to shew the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in scripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocho, Aden, Muschat, and Suez, where most of the trade of this country is carried on; but those of Mecca, which is the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a mosque so glorious that it is generally counted the most magnificent of any temple in the Turkish dominions: its lofty roof being raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is almost incredible, every mussulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his life-time, or send a deputy.

At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque, supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the Most Holy by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the Bashaw of Egypt, by order of the Grand Signior, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden crescent, so curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones, that it is esteemed a master-piece of great value. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

Government.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are stiled Xerifs and Imans, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the califfs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomet. These monarchs appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The Northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by bashaws residing among them; but it is certain they receive large gratuities from the Grand Signior for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but the Kings command both the

persons and the purses of their subjects as the necessity of affairs require.

History.] The history of this country differs from that of all others; for as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is entirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are descended of Ismael, of whose posterity it was foretold that they should be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Towards the North, and the sea-coasts of Arabia, indeed the inhabitants are kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the Southern and inland parts, acknowledge themselves for subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of Arabia Felix. He was born in the sixth century, in the reign of Justinian XI. Emperor of Constantinople.

Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, Mahomet was endowed with a subtle genius, like those of the same country, and possessed an enterprize and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow Cadiga, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth, and of a numerous family. During his perigrations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while, at the same time, there were many particulars into which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of these particulars, by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions, universal among men, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been established. In this design he was assisted by a Sergian monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloyster and profession, and engage in the service of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy, a disease which those whom

whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal; Mahomet gave out therefore that these fits were trances, into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, and during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by living a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet, sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it. He did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. The Eastern countries were at this time strongly infected with the heresy of Arius, who allowed the prophetic office, but denied the divinity of Jesus Christ. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecution of the Emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were Pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, in order to be the better able to indulge in the gratification of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. Mahomet's system was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world, and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to establish a kingdom upon earth which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers, had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith would be peculiarly intense, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors, (a restraint not very severe in warm climates,) and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no sooner published, than a vast many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest we formerly mentioned, and compose a book called the Koran, or Alcoran, by way of eminence; as we say the Bible, which means The Book. The person of

Mahomet,

Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Talmachi, or, the City of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Christ, the 44th year of Mahomet's age, and 10th of his ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the æra is called in Arabic, *Hegira*, i. e. the Flight.

But though Mahomet met with great difficulties at first in the establishment of his imposture, by great assiduity and perseverance he at length carried his point, and got himself acknowledged as the Great Prophet by all the Arabians. He then began to think of spreading his religion into different countries, and for this purpose wrote a letter to the Emperor of Persia, and another to the Greek Emperor at Constantinople. Neither of these monarchs, however, thought proper to comply with his proposals, and the latter would have made war upon him, but was prevented by one of his subjects, who assured him that the enterprize would prove very dangerous, as not the most despotic monarchs he had ever seen had half the veneration paid them which was given to Mahomet by his followers. He seems indeed to have been regarded to all intents and purposes as a god. When he spit, his followers licked up his spittle from the ground, and gathered up the hairs which happened to fall from his head, or the pairings of his nails, as the most precious relics. So strongly cemented therefore were the Arabs by this superstition, that they were much more than a match for any nation on earth, at the same time that their Imporor, by the rules of his religion, encouraged, nay, commanded them to attempt the conquest of all other people, and assured them that their rewards in the next world would be in proportion to the fury with which they fought in this. One thing, however, he erred in, namely, in not appointing a successor before his death; and this omission, happily for mankind, introduced divisions immediately after the death of the Prophet, and weakened the power of the Enthusiasts. Yet their conquests were exceedingly rapid; in seventy years, or little more, they made themselves masters of Persia, great part of Tartary and India on the East, and of Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Barbary, and Spain on the West. France they also invaded, but were overthrown, with very great slaughter, by Charles Martel, and obliged to give over the enterprize. Their empire also soon began to fall in pieces. Spain first fell off, and thence came the Moorish kings who governed that country for so long a time, and were finally expelled only within these two centuries. On the East, the empire was divided into innumerable little tyrannies, while the seat of the empire was removed to Bagdad. In the beginning of the 13th century the Moguls over-ran and destroyed all the Eastern part of the Arabian empire, which they finally overthrew about the year 1256, under their commander Hulaku, who took the city of Bagdad, and is said to have there massacred sixteen hundred thousand persons. The country of Arabia itself, however, he did not conquer, nor though Tamerlane the Tartar over-ran

over-ran the same countries somewhat more than a century after, did he enter Arabia; so that on the whole it may be fairly concluded that the Arabians never were conquered by any nation; neither indeed, considering the nature of their country, is there a possibility of it; for the extreme want of water must necessarily prevent the march of an army through it: at the same time that the Arabs mounted on their swift camels, and which can bear the want of water several days, can traverse the most inhospitable deserts with ease. They can, indeed, make no more conquests, but the superstition originally propagated by them continues to overspread, we may say, the whole of Africa, the greatest part of Asia, and no inconsiderable part of Europe.

P E R S I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 1300 } between { 45 and 70 East longitude.
 Breadth 1100 } { 25 and 44 North latitude.

Boundaries.] MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the North-West; by the Caspian sea, which divides it from Russia, on the North; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the North-East; by India on the East, and by the Indian ocean, and the gulphs of Persia and Ormus, on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey on the West.

Modern Persia comprehends the ancient Hyrcania, Bactria, Susiana, Parthia, Media, and part of Assyria, Iberia, and Colchis. The modern divisions of Persia are extremely uncertain, and of little importance to the reader.

Name.] Persia, according to the poets, derives its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danae. Less fabulous authors suppose it derived from Paras, which signifies a horseman, the Persians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

Air.] In so extensive an empire this is very different. Those parts which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian sea, are cold. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilarating, but in the Southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

Soil

Soil and Productions.] Those vary like the air. Vegetation is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caspian sea, but with cultivation the soil might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life, are equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, fenna, rhubarb, and the finest of drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially their dates, oranges, pistachio-nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden-stuff, not to mention vast quantities of excellent silk; and the gulph of Boffora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts near Ispahan especially produce almost all the flowers that are valuable in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assaetida flows from a plant called Hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

Mountains.] These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast collection of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

Rivers.] It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are those of the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rise in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian sea. The scarcity of rivers in Persia, is joined to a scarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods, though less so now than formerly.

This country contains mines of iron, copper, lead; and turquoise-stones are found in Chorasan. Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have been discovered near Tauris, and natural salt in the province of Carmania.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as that of Persia. If we judge by the vast armies in modern as well as in ancient times, raised there, the number of inhabitants must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome, the men being fond of Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexions towards the South are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality

quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them cost 25 pounds, and sew under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect, even to the King. Their dress is very simple. Next to the skin they wear callico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive, consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslin, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs; and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open, so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purposes both of health and activity, than the long flowing robes of the Turks.

The dress of the women is not much different; their wear, as well as that of the men, is very costly, and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent washings and ablutions which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, sweet-meats, and milk; but their chief meal is at night. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great masters of ceremony towards their superiors, and so polite, that they accommodate Europeans, who visit them, with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, (which they smoke thro' a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth,) that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country, rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and their national revolutions, have mingled the natives with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages they have been remarkable for hospitality.

The Persians write, like the Hebrews, from the right to the left, are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed in their manuscripts, (for no printing is allowed there,) is incredible.

Their great foible seems to be ostentation in their equipages and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks, and other Eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts, and privately play at games of chance.

Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers, or merchants, who

intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the cadée, or judge, for a wife during the time he proposes to stay. The cadée, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases, and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia declares, that, amongst thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

Religion.] The Persians are Mahometans of the sect of Ali, for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if possible, in some things more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks, but in many points it is mingled with some bramin superstitions. When they are taxed by the Christians with drinking strong liquors, as many of them do, they answer very sensibly, "You Christians, "where and get drunk, though you know you are committing sins, "which is the very case with us." To enumerate their superstitions, fables, and ceremonies, would require a volume. Having mentioned the bramins, the comparison between them and the Persian guebres, or gaur, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient magi, the followers of Zoroaster, may be highly worth a learned disquisition: that both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved, but the Indian bramins and paries accuse the gaur, who still worship the fire, of having sensualized those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the North of Persia, is the scene of the guebres devotions. It must be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very surprising inflammatory qualities, and contains several old little temples, in one of which the guebres pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end, and a large hollow cane stuck into the ground, resembling a lamp burning, with very pure spirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the gaur, who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. Their sect, however, is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day many sects are found, that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called souffees, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabeen Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism, and are numerous towards the Persian Gulph. The Armenian and Georgian Christians are very numerous in Persia.

Language.] The Arabs had not their language from the Persians; but this chiefly rests on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Persian language, and the decision seems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, especially towards the Southern coasts of the Caspian sea, speak Turkish, and the Arabic probably was introduced into Persia, under the califate. The learned persons have generally

generally written in the Arabic, and people of quality among them have adopted it as the modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persian is said to be spoken in the Southern parts, on the coast of the Persian gulph, and in Ispahan, but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages. Their Pater-noster is of the following tenor: *Ei Padere ma kib der ofmoni; pak bashed nam tu; bayayed padshahi tu; sebwad chwaafte tu henjunaaukih, der ofmon niz derzamin; beh mara jmrouz nan kefarouz mara; wadargudfar mara konaban ma zfunankihma niz mig farim orman mara; wador ozmajish minedazzamara; likin ebalas kun mara ez escherir. Amen.*

Learning and learned Men.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the East. At present, their learning is merely mechanical, nor do they even understand the Koran, which they read in Arabic. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine, which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be administered in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescription. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; as equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places, such as the gout, the stone, the head-ach, the tooth-ach, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, so that they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood, for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

Antiquities and Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] The monuments of antiquity in Persia are more celebrated for their magnificence and expence than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia, but void of that elegance and beauty that is displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works, being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be seen at Ispahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls, but, upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

The baths near Combroon work such cures that they are esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the

famous Naphtha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country, is the burning phenomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of *Religion*.

Houses, Cities, and public Edifices.] The houses of men of quality in Persia are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks. They are seldom above one storey high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being built apart. Few of them have chimneys, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlets, with carpets under them.

Isfahan, or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their Summer evenings, and different families associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Isfahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravanseras, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the people. This capital is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants, but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, so that we may easily suppose that it has lost great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Schiras lies about 200 miles to the South of Isfahan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and wines of which are incomparable. The vines of Schiras are reckoned the best of any in Persia.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulph, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans, which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

Mosques and Bagnies.] Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone; before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the mosques. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has

has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding, and other ornaments; and from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque, nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days, and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the Koran, and praying for the souls of the deceased.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white well polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though, to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs, as if he was dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon, when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest clothes.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufactures in the world in silk, woolen, mohair, carpets, and leather; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying exceeds that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse-furniture are not to be equalled, nor are they ignorant of the pottery, and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen, and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That between the English, and other nations, by the gulph of Ormus, at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had, but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither.

Constitution and Government.] Both these are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despotic and often capricious monarch. The Persians, however, had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king's will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised

practised by the Mahometan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the two last centuries. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the finallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility; so that the respect due to every man, on account of his high station, expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

Revenues.] The crown claims one third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank, or condition of Persians are exempted from severe taxation and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops, and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's household, and great officers of state; the revenues of the Persian kings, or, as they are called, Sophis, must therefore be prodigious, but nothing can be said with any certainty in the present distracted state of that country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax, and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a-head.

Military Strength.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but, according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy, but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

Arms and Titles.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the rising sun. His title is *Shah*, or, *the Disposer of Kingdoms*. Shah, or Khan, and Sulman, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name, but the grant runs in this manner, *viz.* This act is given by him whom the universe obeys.

History.] The Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian, and Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ; restoring the Israelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. When Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, their posterity were conquered by the Romans. These last, however, never fully subdued Persia, and the natives had princes of their own, who frequently defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Tamerlane, whose posterity was supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sophi family, and pretended to be descended from Mahomet. His successors, though some of them were valiant and politic, proved in general to be a disgrace

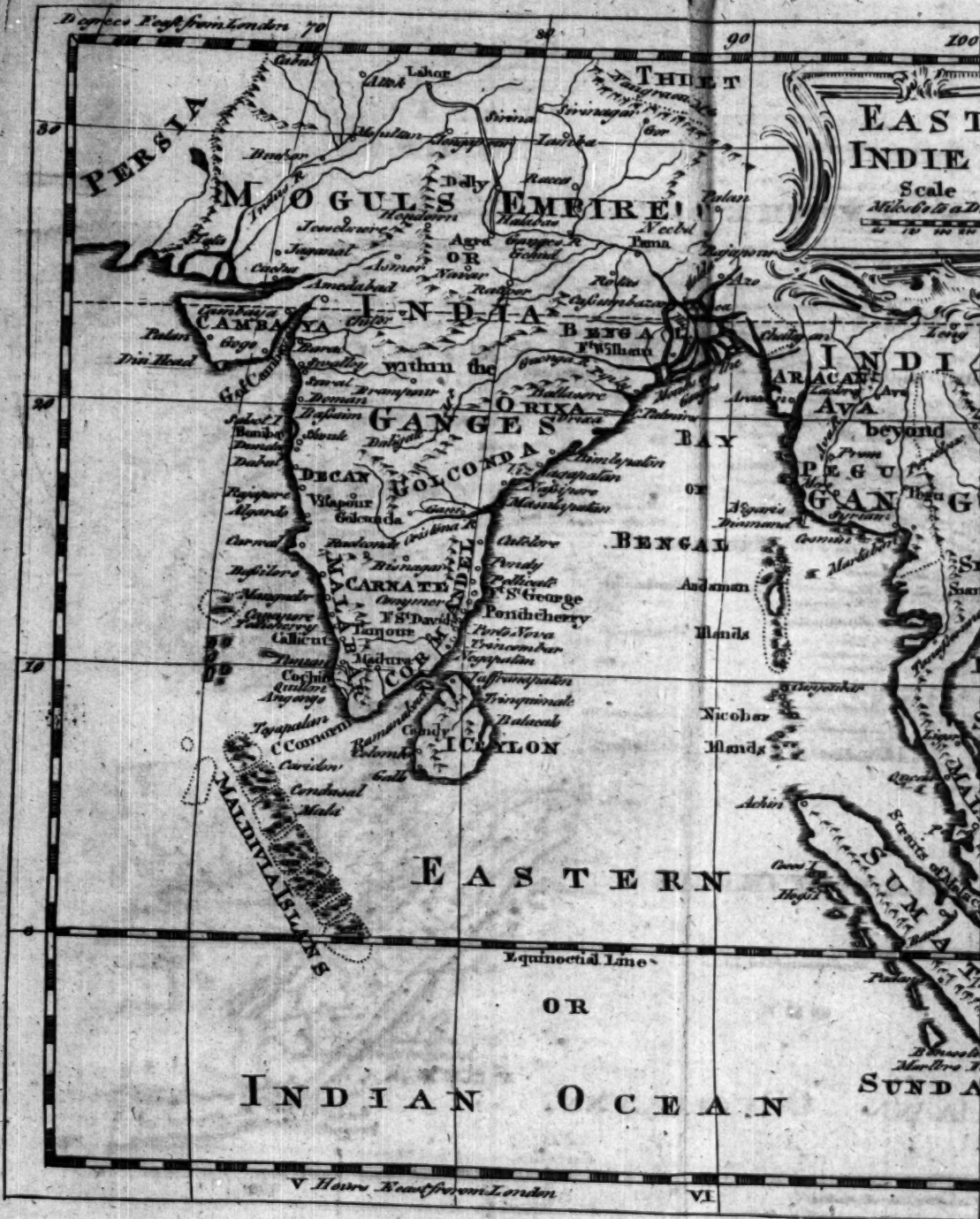
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to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into such disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hasssein, a prince of the Sophi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmus, the representative of the Sophi family, had escaped from the rebels, and, assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during the late rebellion. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after assuming the name of Tahmus Kouli Khan, and pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shau Nadir. His successful expedition into India shall be mentioned in the history of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his booty from India, losing great part of it upon his return by the Marattas and accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghestan Tartars, whose country he found inaccessible. He beat the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdat. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; but the fortunate candidate was Kerim Khan, who was crowned at Tauris in 1763, and, according to the latest accounts, still keeps possession of the throne.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

Situation and Boundaries. } THIS country is situated between the 66th and 109th degree of East longitude, and between 1 and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded on the North by the countries of Usbec Tartary and Tibet; on the South by the Indian ocean; on the East, by China and the Chinese sea; and on the West, by Persia and the Indian sea.

Divisions.] India, at large, is divided into three great parts: first, the Peninsula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Further Peninsula; secondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninsula within or on this side the Ganges: all of them populous and extended empires. Mr. Orme comprehends the two latter divisions under the title of Indostan. The Mahometans (says he) who
are

are called Moors, of Indostan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about an hundred millions. Above half the empire is subject to Rajahs, or Kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise all rights of sovereignty, only paying a tribute to the Great Mogul, and observing the treaties by which their ancestors recognized his superiority.

Religion and Government.] The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos, or Hindoos. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legislator, both in politicks and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. The Bramins, (for so the Gentoos priests are called,) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and that though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a commentary upon it, called the Shahkrah, which is wrote in the Sanserit, now a dead language, and known only to the Bramins who study it. The foundation of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man: in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which is to consist of a transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-existent state.

The necessity of inculcating this complicated doctrine into the lower ranks induced the Bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourse to sensible representations of their Deity and his attributes; so that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to ridiculous idolatry, in the worship of the most hideous figures; and the belief of an Omnipotent Being is now almost lost among the Gentoos.

Those Indians are divided into tribes, the four principle of which are the Bramins, soldiers, labourers, and mechanicks. These are again subdivided into a multiplicity of inferior distinctions: The Bramins have an entire power, which they use commonly to very bad purposes, over the minds of the people; tho' some of them are superstitious, moral, and innocent. They are all of them such bigots, that, excepting the Hallachores, who are the refuse and outcasts of the other tribes, and disowned and detested by them all, Mr Craffton doubts, whether there ever was an instance of any of the Gentoos being converted by the missionaries.

The soldiers are commonly called Rajah-poots, or persons descended from Rajahs, and reside chiefly in the Northern provinces, and are generally more fair complexioned than the people of the Southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah-poots are a robust, brave, powerful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

The labourers are the farmers and all who are concerned in the cultivation of lands.

The mechanicks are merchants, bankers, traders of all kinds, and are divided into many subordinations.

Those

Those different tribes are forbid to intermarry, to cohabit, to eat with each other, or even to drink out of the same vessel with one of another tribe; and every deviation in these points subjects them to be rejected by their tribe, renders them for ever polluted, and they are thenceforward obliged to herd with the Hallachores.

Different kinds of food are assigned to different tribes. The bramins touch nothing that has life; the soldiers are permitted to eat venison, mutton, and fish; the labourers and merchants live differently, according to their sex and professions, some of them being allowed to eat fish, but none of them animal food.

The practice of women burning themselves upon the death of their husbands is now said to be disused all over Indostan; and the Gentoos in general choose death by famine rather than pollute themselves by eating forbidden food.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are stupendous, but disgusting stone-buildings, erected in every capital, and under the tuition of the bramins. If the bramins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. They know how to calculate eclipses; and judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head-astrologer being always consulted in their councils. They are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and rather than discover it put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the vast scarcity of silver that till of late prevailed in Indostan.

Their perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age; keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. It is with them a frequent saying, that it is better to sit than to walk, to lye down than to sit, to sleep than to wake, and death is the best of all.

The Mahometans, who in Indostan are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the Califs of Bagdat, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government. Those princes being strict Mahometans, received under their protection all who professed the same religion, and who being a brave active people counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which might be stiled a kingdom, were subdivided into nabobships, each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who in process of time became almost independent on the Emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute.

Of all those tribes, the Marattas at present make the greatest figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indostan and Persia. They commonly serve on horseback, and when

well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active spirits, and pay no great respect to the principles of their religion. Mr Scrafton says, that the Mahometans, or Moors, are of so detestable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and those were among the Tartar and Persian officers of the army. They are void of every principle, even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hospitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will stab him to the heart.

The people of Indostan are governed by no written laws, and their courts of justice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan institutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the Emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted, without almost the semblance of virtue among its great officers either civil or military. It was shaken, however, after the invasion of Mahomet Shah, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their own armies and support their power; so that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Bramins and the Gentoos themselves as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Indostan, from being the best-regulated government in the world, is become a scene of mere anarchy or stratocracy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse estate, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government.

The complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both sexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Persians and Tartars, on account of the fairness of their complexion, resembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane and his great generals.

The

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called, The FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 2000 {	between } 1 and 30 North Latitude.
Breadth 1000 {	92 and 109 East Longitude.

Boundaries.] **T**HIS Peninsula is bounded by Tibet and China, on the North; by China, and the Chinese sea, on the East; by the same, and the Straits of Malacca on the South; and by the Bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the West.

Grand divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns,
On the North-West,	{ Achem, }	{ Chamdara.
	{ Ava, }	{ Ava.
	{ Aracan, . . . }	{ Aracan.
	{ Pegu, }	{ Pegu, E. Lon. 97. N. L.
		{ 17-30.
On the South-West,	{ Martaban, . . }	{ Martaban.
	{ Siam, }	{ Siam, E. Lon. 100-55.
		{ N. Lat. 14-18.
	{ Malacca, . . }	{ Malacca, E. Lon. 101.
		{ N. Lat. 2-12.
On the North-East,	{ Tonquin, . . . }	{ Cachao, or Keccio, E.
		{ Long. 105. N. Lat.
		{ 22-10.
	{ Laos, }	{ Lanchang.
On the South-East,	{ Cochin China, . }	{ Thoanoa.
	{ Cambodia, . . }	{ Cambodia.
	{ Chiampa, . . . }	{ Padram.

Name.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which, of all others, was best known to the Persians. The whole of this Peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

Air and Climate.] This country is so little known that authors differ concerning its air, some preferring that of the Southern, and some that of the Northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in some places moist, and consequently unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings,

and inundations, so that the people build their houses upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of seasons but wet and dry. Easterly and Westerly Monsoons (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

Mountains.] These run from North to South almost the whole length of the country; but the lands near the sea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy season.

Rivers.] The chief are Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava.

Bays and Straits.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The Straits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banfac.

Soil and Product of the different Nations.] The soil of this Peninsula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delicious fruits that are found in other countries, as well as roots and vegetables. It abounds likewise in silks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domestic and wild, that are common in the Southern kingdoms of Asia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all the Peninsula. In some places, especially towards the North, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, owing to the badness of their water.

Inhabitants, Customs, and Diversions.] The Tonquinese are excellent mechanics and fair traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. His majesty engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of laquer houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the South are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad-cloth, red or green, and others wear a dark coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the best countries in Asia, the inhabitants prefer dog's flesh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, because the king is sole proprietor of all the gold and silver and other metals found in this kingdom. They live, however, easily and comfortably. Almost every housekeeper has an elephant for the convenience of his wives and women, polygamy being practised all over India.

It is unquestionable that those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had the use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe, and the invention is generally ascribed to the Azemese. The inhabitants of the Southern division of this Peninsula go under the name of Maylyans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

The people believe in a future state, and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and such vessels of gold and silver as they think can be of use to them in their future life.

life. The people of this Peninsula are commonly very fond of shew, and often make an appearance beyond their circumstances. They are delicate in no part of their dress but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathsome, for besides dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking fish. The people of Arraken are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to consummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy.

The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, the celebration of festivals, and their acting comedies by torch-light from evening to morning.

Language.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian, but in this Peninsula it is chiefly Maylayan, interspersed with other dialects.

Learning and Learned Men.] It is more than probable that the Egyptians, the nation from which the Greeks and Romans drew the fine arts, owed them to the Bramins, and the Gentoos, who are sometimes called Banians. Some late English authors, who were well acquainted with the affairs of Indostan, have assured us that that empire still contains men of the most unspotted lives and profound knowledge of all the original bramin theology, morality, and civil constitutions. Such men are hard to be discovered, but when accessible, they are modest and communicative in all branches of their learning, but those in which they are enjoined in inviolable secrecy: and we have some well-attested instances where they have suffered death rather than betray their secrets, which are hereditary in their families.

Manufactures and Commerce.] These vary in the different countries of this Peninsula. The inhabitants, in some parts, are obliged to manufacture their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades that they understand, the people are more industrious and better workmen than the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their linen, and their fillagree-work in gold and silver, are beyond any thing of those kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all the trading nations in the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury.

Constitution, Government, Rarities, and Cities.] This article requires a slight review of the kingdoms that form this Peninsula. In Azem, the king is proprietor of all the gold and silver: he pays little or nothing to the great Mogul. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently subject to the kings of Arrakan; and that they send to the Chinese gold and silk, for which

which they receive silver in return. Arrakan lyes to the South of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes, subject to the chief king, who resides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains seven idols cast in gold of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious stones. Pegu is about 350 English miles in length, and almost the same in breadth. It is uncertain whether it is not at present subject to the king or emperor of Ava. The riches of the king (whoever he is) are almost incredible; some of his idols, as big as life, being of massy gold and silver. His revenues arise from the rents of lands, of which he is sole proprietor, and from duties on merchandise; so that some think him to be the richest monarch in the world, excepting the Chinese emperor. He can bring a million, and, on occasion, a million and a half of soldiers to the field, well clothed and armed; and he is said to be master of 800 trained elephants, each with a castle on his back holding four soldiers. The constitution of his empire is of the feudal kind, for he assigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. Macao is the great mart of trade in Pegu.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava; we are not even sure to whom it belongs. It is said, the honours the king assumes are next to divine. His subjects trade chiefly in musk and jewels, rubies, and sapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants resemble those of Pegu. In those kingdoms, and indeed in the greatest part of this Peninsula, the doctrines of the Lama, or Dairo, the living god, equally prevail as those of the bramins. The principles of the Lama are best calculated for rendering the king a mere cypher in his government, which is entirely vested in his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos, formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the East, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is absolutely despotic, and lives in inexpressible pomp and magnificence; but being of the Lama religion, is the slave of his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Siam, is a large, rich, and flourishing kingdom, and that it approaches in its government, policy, the quickness and acuteness of its inhabitants, very near to the Chinese. The inhabitants of both sexes are more modest than any found in the rest of this Peninsula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are simple, and performed by their talapoins or priests, sprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating some prayers. We are told that gold is so abundant in this country, that their most ponderous images are made of it, and that it is seen in vast quantities on the outside of the king's palace. Those relations are found by modern travellers to be the fictions of French and other missionaries; for tho' the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either excessive thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacquer that cover wooden or other materials.

The government here is excessively despotic; even servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarines

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are prostrated before the King. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely a sixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bangkok, which stands about eighteen leagues to the South of Siam, and twelve miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the East side of the Peninsula at Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The Peninsula of Malacca is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are said to be the real masters and sovereigns of the whole Peninsula, being in possession of the capital (Malacca.) The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Maylayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. Its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and gums. Some missionaries pretend that it is the Golden Chersonesus, or Peninsula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants used to measure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent situation of this country admits of a trade with India; so that when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the East, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Maylayans, who were formerly an industrious ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

The English carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their country ships, from the coast of Coromandel and the bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their superiors, provided they can enrich themselves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the best information, its greatest length, from North to South, is about 520 English miles; and its greatest breadth from West to East, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a spacious river running thro' it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its sultry air, and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by sea and land, are much the same with the other kingdoms of this vast Peninsula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East-Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant, but is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans. The same barbarous magnificence, despotism of their king, and ignorance of the people prevail here, as throughout the rest of the Peninsula.

Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lyes the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the Western China, is situated under the torrid zone,

zone, and extends, according to some authors, about 500 miles in length ; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from East to West. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin-China. The manners and religion of the people seem to be originally Chinese, and they are much given to trade. Their king is said to be immensely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in other parts of the East-Indies ; but, at the same time, we are told that this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, are subject to the Chinese emperor. It is reasonable to suppose, that all those rich countries were peopled from China, or at least that they had, some time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother empire became so large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reserving to itself a kind of feudal superiority over them all.

The government of Tonquin is particular. The Tonquinese had revolted from the Chinese, which was attended by a civil war. A compromise at last took place between the chief of the revolt and the representative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, should retain the royal titles, and be permitted some inconsiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he, nor any of his family can stir without the permission of the Chouah. The Chouah resides generally in the capital Cachao, which is situated near the centre of the kingdom. The Bua's palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing house on the North side of their city, conveniently fitted up with store-houses and office-houses, a noble dining-room, and handsome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The possession of rubies, and other precious stones of an extraordinary size, and even of white or party-coloured elephants, convey among those credulous people a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and has sometimes occasioned bloody wars. After all, it must be acknowledged, that however dark the accounts we have of those kingdoms may be, yet there is sufficient evidences to prove that they are immensely rich in all the treasures of nature; but that those advantages are attended with many natural calamities, such as floods, volcanoes, earthquakes, tempests, and, above all, rapacious and poisonous animals, which render the possession of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

INDIA WITHIN THE GANGES, Or, The EMPIRE OF THE GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT; (Including the Peninsula West of the Ganges.)

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 2000 } Breadth 1500 }	between { 7 and 40 North Latitude. 66 and 92 East Longitude.

Boundaries. **T**HIS empire is bounded by Usbec Tartary and Tibet, on the North; by Tibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the East; by the Indian Ocean, on the South; by the same and Persia, on the West. The main land being the Mogul Empire, or Indostan, properly so called.

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The North - East division of India, containing the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut,	Bengal Proper,	Calcutta, English. Hugley, Eng. & Dutch. Dacca, Eng. & Dutch. Malda, Eng. and Dutch. Chandenagore, French. Chatigan.
	Naugracut, . . .	Cassumbazer.
	Jesuat, . . .	Naugracut.
	Patna, . . .	Rajapour.
	Patna, . . .	Patna.
	Necbal, . . .	Necbal.
	Gore, . . .	Gore.
	Rotas, . . .	Rotas.
	Soret, . . .	Jaganel.
	Jasselmere, . . .	Jasselmere.
The North - West division on the frontiers of Persia, and on the river of Indus,	Tata, or Sinda,	Tata.
	Bucknor, . . .	Bucknor.
	Multan, . . .	Multan.
	Haican, . . .	Haican.
	Cabul, . . .	Cabul.
	Candish, . . .	Medipour.
The middle division,	Berar, . . .	Berar.
	Chitor, . . .	Chitor.
	Ratipor, . . .	Ratipor.
	Narvar, . . .	Narvar.
	Gualcor, . . .	Gualcor.

Grand division.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The middle division continued.	Agra,	Agra.
	Delly,	Delly, E. Lon. 79. N. Lat. 28.
	Lahor, or Penciah,	Lahor.
	Hendowns, . . .	Hendowns.
	Cassimere, . . .	Cassimere.
	Jengapour, . . .	Jengapour.
	Afmer, or Bando,	Afmer.

Air and Seasons.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the South, and six from the North. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea-breezes; and in some dry seasons the hurricanes, which tear up the sands and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

Mountains.] The most remarkable mountains are those of Caucasus and Naugracut, which divide India from Persia, Usbec Tartary, and Tibet, and are inhabited by Marattas, Afghans or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. As to the mountains of Balagate, which run almost the whole length of India from North to South, they are so high that they stop the Western monsoon, the rains beginning sooner on the Malabar coast than they do on the coast of Coromandel.

Rivers.] These are the Indus and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and held in the highest esteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Besides those rivers, many others water this country.

Seas, Bays, and Capes.] These are the Indian Ocean; the Bay of Bengal; the Gulph of Cambaya; the Straits of Ramanakoe; Cape Comerin and Diu.

Inhabitants.] The Fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about practising the greatest austerities, but many of them are impostors. Their number is said to be 800,000. Another set of mendicants are the Joghies, who are idolaters, and are supposed to be twelve millions in number, but all of them vagabonds, and lazy impostors, who live by amusing the credulous Gentoos with foolish fictions. The Banians, who are so called from their affected innocence of life, serve as brokers, and profess the Gentoo religion, or somewhat like it.

The Persees, or Parses, of Indostan, are originally the Gaurs, described in Persia, but are a most industrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be possessed

possessed of the works of Zoroaster, whom they call by various names, and which some Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw light upon the ancient history both sacred and profane. This opinion is countenanced by the few parcels of those books that have been published; but some are of opinion that the whole is a modern imposture, founded upon sacred, traditional, and profane histories and religions.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the sports of the field. They affect shady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous music, both in wind and string instruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houses make no appearance, and those of the commonality are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them subject to fire; but the manufacturers chuse to work in the open air; and the insides of houses belonging to principal persons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleasant, nay, many of them magnificent.

Commerce of Indostan.] The Mahometan merchants here carry on a trade that has not been described, I mean that of Mecca, in Arabia, from the Western parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular species of vessels called junks, the largest of which, we are told, besides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to visit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver; so that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000*l*.

Provinces, Cities, and other Buildings, public and private.] These are pretty uncertain, especially since the late revolutions of the empire.

Guzarat is a maritime province on the gulph of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is said to contain 35 cities. Amed-Abed is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About forty-three French leagues distant lyes Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory.

The province of Agra is the largest in all Indostan, containing forty large towns, and 340 villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have none.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewise the capital of Indostan. It is described as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,000 horses, brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, as is often the case, these horses are said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatto, the capital of Sinda, is a large city, and it is said that a plague

plague, which happened in 1699, carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous for the manufacture of palaquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a-day, ten being usually hired, who carry the palaquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palaquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a-month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus or Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Multa is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their situation, are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars yearly for about 60,000 horses. The province of Cassimere, being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (Cassimere) stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans, and are said to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest provinces in the Indies, producing the best sugars of any in Indostan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indostan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been conquered, and though they submit to the Moguls, live in an easy, independent state. In some of those provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native soil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the most interesting to an English reader. It is esteemed to be the store-house of the East-Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry, and other trees. Its calicoes, silks, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and river, go all over the world; and provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near 100 leagues on both sides the Ganges, being full of cities, towns, villages, and castles.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoo is practised in its greatest purity, and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagods or temples. The women, notwithstanding their religion, are said by some to be lascivious and enticing.

The principal English factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort-William; it is situated on the river Hughly, the most westerly branch of the Ganges. The Fort itself is said to be irregular and untenable against disciplined troops; but the servants of the company have provided themselves with an excellent house, and most

most convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itself may be now said to be in possession of the company, an English civil government, by a mayor and alderman, has been introduced into it. It does not, however, seem to give general satisfaction, on account of the vast influence which the company has always over the magistrates, and many complaints from private persons have lately reached England.

In 1756, the Indian Nabob, or Viceroy, quarrelled with the company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The Governor, and some of the principal persons of the place, threw themselves, with their chief effects, on board the ships in the river; they who remained, for some hours bravely defended the place, but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The Subah, a capricious unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr Holwell, the Governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little, but secure prison, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrenzy. Among those saved were Mr Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible tyrant returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of Admiral Watson, and Colonel (afterwards Lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of the place; and the war was concluded by the glorious battle of Plassey, gained by the Colonel, and the death of the tyrant Suraja Dowla, in whose place Mbir Jaffier was advanced to the Subaship.

The capital of Bengal, where the Nabob keeps his court, is Patna, or Maksudabad; and Bannares, lying in the same province, is the Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sanctity.

Chandernagore is the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal; it lies higher up the river than Calcutta: but though strongly fortified, and furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken in the late war by the English Admirals Watson and Pocock, and Colonel Clive. Hugley, which lies 50 miles to the North of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies 30 leagues to the North of Hugley, for about 50 miles farther. Dakka is said to be the largest city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an English and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Cassimbazer, Chinchura, Barnagur, and Muddo; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province of Malva, which lies to the West of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and that its chief city is Ratipor. The province of Kandish includes that

that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, so that it is of prodigious extent, and carries on a vast trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered stuffs.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire to the North of what is properly called the Peninsula within the Ganges. Those that lye to the Southward fall into the description of the Peninsula itself.

History.] The history of Indostan is very little known, tho' some of the natives have wrote large volumes upon it. These historians indeed refuse themselves by the vast antiquity to which they pretend, and the whole substance of them consists in giving an account of wars and conquests in which there is so much sameness, that it is impossible to avoid believing that they are only the same story dressed up in various forms, according to the fancy of the author; and even in this respect their genius seems to have been exceedingly defective. We have no certain accounts of the time when this country was first peopled; but it is probable, that part of it, at least, was subdued by the Persians in the reign of Darius Hystaspes. His conquests, however, had not been permanent; for when Alexander the Great conquered Persia, no part of India seems to have been subject to that empire. But as the ambition of Alexander prompted him to extend his conquests to the remotest corners of the globe, he therefore undertook an expedition into India without having received any provocation. He met with many difficulties in his march, and was opposed by a valiant prince named Porus, whom, however, he defeated and took prisoner. He would have gone on with the conquest of the whole country, but his soldiers positively refused to follow him any farther; and he was therefore obliged to make the river Hydaspes, a branch of the Indus, the boundary of his dominions. He sailed down the Indus, and thus entered the Indian ocean, and in this voyage we have a remarkable instance of his passion for ruling; since, in his voyage down that river, he obliged the nations on both sides to own subjection to him.

After the death of Alexander, his successors were so far from extending his conquests, that Seleucus abandoned the whole country of India to one *Androcottus*, or *Sandrocottus*, for 500 elephants, and this man is said to have extended his dominion over all the countries to the river Ganges, and beyond it. Of him and his successors we know very little, excepting that Augustus, Severus, and Aurelian are said to have received ambassadors from the Indian monarchs. Trajan, indeed, is said by some Roman authors to have conquered India; but this is by no means well authenticated, nor does it appear that he ever subdued one half of Persia. The Saracens penetrated much farther to the East than ever the Greeks or Romans had done, and undoubtedly subdued a great part of India. However, they seem to have soon lost it again, for *Mahmed Gazni*, who founded the empire of *Karazm*, made many inroads into this country, and carried off incredible riches. Neither do his conquests seem to have been permanent; for, in the 13th century, when the Moguls over-ran Asia almost from its Eastern to its Western extremity, they did not conquer the Indians; nay, they were at last defeated with great slaughter by them. Somewhat more than a century after the irruption of the Moguls, *Tamerlane* invaded

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and conquered the country, with incredible slaughter of the inhabitants, and from him the present emperors are said to be descended.

The history of his immediate descendants has been variously represented, but all agree that they were magnificent and despotic princes; that they committed their provinces to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. At length, towards the middle of the last century, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning Emperor, after dethroning or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indostan. He was a most abandoned hypocrite, who committed the greatest enormities under pretence of religion, and, by one means or other, extended his dominions, though it was little better than nominal, over the Peninsula within the Ganges, which is at present so well known to the English. He lived so late as the year 1707, and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive in the year 1750. Aurengzebe seems to have left too much power to the governors of his distant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful despotism, which, while in his hands, preserved the tranquility of his empire, but when it descended to his weak indolent successors, occasioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzo'din, who took the name of Jehandar Shah. This prince was a slave to his pleasures, and was governed by his mistress so absolutely, that his great Omrahs conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews, who struck off his uncle's head. The new Emperor, whose name was Furrukhsir, was governed, and at last enslaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abused his power so grossly, that, being afraid to punish them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately assassinated. They discovered his intention, and dethroned the Emperor, in whose place they raised a grandson of Aurengzebe by his daughter, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Furrukhsir. The young Emperor proved disagreeable to the brothers, and being soon poisoned, they raised to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The Rajahs of Indostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers, but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in 1719. He was succeeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and entered into private measures with his great Rajahs for destroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam-al-Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is said, was privately encouraged by the Emperor to declare himself against the brothers, and to proclaim himself Soubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the Emperor's order, who immediately advanced to Delhi to destroy the other brother, but he no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the Sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, Emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the Emperor was victorious, and is said to have used his conquest with great

great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the Emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement; and, upon his death, the Emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam, he became now the great Imperial General, and was often employed against the Marattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his Soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Indostan. It is thought that he had intelligence of a strong party formed against him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The Persians easily became masters of the capital, and do not seem to have inclined to behave cruelly, but a violent disturbance arising among the natives, somebody fired a musket at Nadir Shah himself, which so provoked him, that he ordered a general massacre, and 120,000 people perished, besides an immense treasure he carried off in 1739. He also obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the West of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Kabul, and Ganga, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almost equal to the crown of Persia itself.

This invasion cost the Gentooes 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, some accounts, and those too strongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible sum of two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of those times. The most moderate say, that Nadir's own share amounted to considerably above seventy millions. Be that as it will, the invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. The history of it, since that time, is less known than that of Tamerlane itself. According to the best accounts, upon the retreat of Nadir Shah, who left the Emperor in possession of his dignity, the Patans invaded his dominions; and so treacherous were the Emperor's generals and ministry, that none of them would head an army against them, till the Emperor's son, a youth of eighteen years of age, bravely undertook the command, destroyed the conspiracy that had been formed against his father, and completely defeated the invaders. During this campaign, the Emperor was strangled by his Vizir; but by a course of well-acted dissimulation, the young Emperor, who was called Amer Shah, found means to put the conspirators to death, but soon after was driven from his throne by a fresh invasion of the Patans and Marattas. Some pretend that one Allum Geer was first proclaimed Emperor, and then murdered by the same Vizir, who raised another prince to the throne. Whether this Allum Geer is the same with Amer Shah is uncertain, as are the intermediate revolutions that followed. At present, the imperial dignity of Indostan is vested in Shah Zada, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble, and

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he depends upon the protection of the English, whose interest it is to support him; as his authority is the best legal guarantee.

The Emperor of Indostan, or Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane the Mongul or Mogul Tartar) on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, *The Conqueror of the World, the Ornament of the Throne, &c.* but he is never crowned.

T H E

PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES

Grand divisions. Provinces. Chief towns.

Madura, . . .
Tanjour, . . .

East-side of Bis-
nagar, or Car-
nate, . . .

Golconda, . . .

Oriza, . . .

West side of Bis-
nagar, or Car-
nate, . . .

Madura.
Tanjour.
Tranquebar, Danes.
Negapatan, Dutch.
Bimnagar.
Portanova, Dutch.
Fort St David, English.
Pondicherry, } French
Conymere, }
Coblon.
Sadrasapatan, Dutch.
St Thomas, Portuguese.
Fort St George, or Madras,
E. Lon. 80-32. N. Lat. 13-
11. English.
Pellicate, Dutch.
Golconda.
Gani, or Coulor, Diamond-
mines.
Mussulapatan, English and
Dutch.
Vizacapatan, English.
Bimlipatan, Dutch.
Oriza.
Ballasore, English.
Tegapatan, Dutch.
Angengo, English.
Cochin, Dutch.
Calicut, Engl. Fr. and Portug.
Tillicherry, English.
Canannore, Dutch.
Monguelore, } Dutch and
Bassilore, } Portuguese.

Grand

The South-
East coast of
India, situate
on the bay of
Bengal, usual-
ly called the
coast of Co-
romandel,

The South-
West coast of
India, usually
called the coast
of Malabar,

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Grand division.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
	Decan, or Vissapour,	Raalconda, Diamond-mines. Cawar, English. Goa, Portuguese. Rajapore, French. Dabal, English. Dundee, } Portuguese. Shoule, }
South-West coast of India continued.	Cambaya, or Guzarat, . . .	Bombay, isle and town, English, 18-30. N. Lat. 73. E. Lon. Bassaim, } Portuguese. Salfette, } Damon, Portuguese. Surat, E. Lon. 72-25. N. Lat. 21-10. Swalley. Barak, English and Dutch. Amedabat. Cambaya. Dieu, Portuguese.

Climate, Seasons, and Produce.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from North to South, renders it Winter on one side of this Peninsula, while it is Summer on the other. About the end of June, a South-West wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, lasts four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel, (the Western and Eastern coasts being so denominated.) Towards the end of October, the rainy season, and the change of the monsoon, begins on the Coromandel coast, which being destitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there during that time, and to this is owing the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot in this Peninsula, but is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast. The produce of the soil is the same with that of the other part of the East-Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, and noxious creatures and insects.

Inhabitants.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion than those of the other Peninsula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes some suspect them to be the descendants of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greatest part of them have but a faint notion, at present, of any allegiance they owe to the Emperor of Indostan, whose tribute from thence has been, ever since the invasion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their Soubahs and Nabobs, who now exercise an independent power in the government,

ment, though even Suraja Dowla was glad to receive a deputation from the Emperor, now reigning, or his father; but besides these Soubahs, and other Imperial Viceroys, many estates in this Peninsula belong to Rajahs, or Lords, who are the descendents of their old princes, and look upon themselves as being independent on the Mogul, and his authority.

Provinces, Cities, and other Buildings, public and private.] This Peninsula is rather to be divided into great governments, or Soubahships, than into provinces. One Soubah often engrosses several provinces, and fixes the seat of his government according to his own convenience.

Madura begins at Cape-Comorin, the Southernmost point of the Peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to be governed by a sovereign king, who has under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist of a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjour is a little kingdom, lying to the East of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince was rich; but it was lately taken by the English East-India company's troops. Within it lyes the Danish East-India settlement of Tranquebar, and the Dutch fortress of Nagapatan, and the capital city is Tanjour.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the East by the bay of Bengal, on the North by the river Christina, which divides it from Golkonda; on the West by Visapur, or Viliapur, and, on the South, by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjour; being in length, from South to North, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth, from East to West. The capital of the Carnatic is Binnagar, and the country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lyes Fort St David's, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the North lyes Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East-Indies, but now demolished by the English, who, in the course of the late war, took this and most of their other settlements in the Mogul empire; but the whole were restored at the peace of 1763, with this limitation, that the French should erect no fortifications, or keep troops in any part of the dominions of the Soubah of Bengal.

Fort St George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East-India company's dominions in the East-Indies, and is distant Eastward from London, about 4800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort. No pains have been spared by the company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexions of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and alderman. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond-mines, which are but a week's journey distant. Those mines are un-

der the tuition of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasure-
ment, and inclosing the contents by pallisadoes, all diamonds above
a certain weight belong to the Emperor. The district belonging to
Madras is of little value for its product, and must import its own
provisions, 80,000 inhabitants, of various nations, are said to be de-
pendent upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the
English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia,
and Mocha.

The reader needs not to be informed of the immense fortunes acqui-
red of late by the English upon this coast. The Governor of Mad-
ras has a council to assist him, and when he goes abroad, appears in
vast splendor. The company has received all the encouragement and
assistance the English parliament can give them, even to the introdu-
cing of martial law into their possessions. There seems, however, to
be some fundamental errors in their constitution. The directors con-
sider the riches acquired by their governors and other servants, as be-
ing plundered from the company, and sometimes have embarrassed the
company's affairs very much.

The English East India company, thro' the distractions of the Mo-
gul empire, the support of our government, and the undaunted but
fortunate successes of their military officers, have acquired so amazing
a property in this Peninsula, and in Indostan, that it is superior to the
revenues of many crowned heads, and some of their own servants
pretend, that when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue
amounts to near two millions sterling, out of which they are to pay
400,000l. annually, to the government, while they are suffered to en-
joy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence
it arises, is best known to the company; part of it however has been
granted in landed property, and part of it is secured on mortgages,
for discharging their expences in supporting the interests of their
friends, the Emperor, and the respective Soubahs and Nabobs they
have assisted.

Be that as it may, this company exercises at present many rights
appropriated to sovereignty, such as those of holding forts, coining
money, and the like. Those powers are undoubtedly incompatible
with the principles of a commercial limited company, and it became
the dignity of the English government, to send out an officer of their
own to take such measures with the Eastern princes and potentates,
as might render the acquisitions of the company permanent and na-
tional.

Pellicate, lying to the North of Madras, belongs to the Dutch.
We know little of the kingdom and capital of Ikkari. The celebra-
ted Hyder Ally, with whom the company lately made a peace, but
who is now making violent war upon them, is said to be a native of
the kingdom of Messur, which lies to the South-West of the Carna-
tic, and the Christians of the apostle St Thomas live at the foot of
the mountains Gatti, that separate Messur from Malabar. Golkon-
da, besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions,
and for making white-wine of grapes that are ripe in January. It is
said to be subject to a prince, who, tho' tributary to the Mogul, is im-
mensely rich, and can raise 100,000 men. The capital of his domi-
nions is called Bagnagar, but the kingdom takes its name from the

city

city of Golkonda. East South-East of Golkonda lyes Masulipatan, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam, and Vizigapatan, on this coast, and the Dutch at Narisipore. The province of Orissa, from whence the English company draw great part of their revenues, lyes to the North of Golkonda, extending in length from East to West about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed likewise by a tributary prince. In this province stands the idolatrous temple of Jagaryunt, which they say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black stone, of about 4 or 500 weight, with two rich diamonds near the top to represent eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermilion.

The country of Dekan comprehends several large provinces, and some kingdoms, particularly those of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Vissapur. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and governments of those provinces, are extremely unsettled; they having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, and subject to almost annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their situation and extent, but we are told, that the principal towns are Aurengabad, and Doltabad, or Dowletabad; and that the latter is the strongest place in all Indostan. Near it lyes the famous pagods of Elora, in a plain about two leagues square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thousand figures that surround it, are said to be cut out of the natural rock, and to surpass all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lyes on the East of Golkonda, and its capital, Beder, contains a garrison of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

Baglana lyes to the West of Telenga, and forms the smallest province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portuguese territory begins here at the port of Daman, 21 leagues South of Surat, and extends almost 20 leagues to the North of Goa.

Vissapur is a large kingdom, tributary to the Mogul, but its particular extent is uncertain. The Western part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The King of Vissapur is said to have a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 soldiers. His capital is of the same name, and his country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are, Daman, Bassaim Trapor, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajahpur, Ghiria, and Vingurla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable possessions on this coast, and those which remain are on the decline.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East-India company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference, but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being destitute of almost all the conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built, and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well

well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the Infanta of Portugal, to Charles II. who gave it to the East-India company, and the island is still divided into three Roman Catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called Popish Mestizos and Canarins, the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the aborigines of the country. The English have fallen upon methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The reader need scarcely be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative posts as well as the officers under them. The troops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over the East-Indies, called Scapoys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near 60,000 of different nations, each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested.

Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephantia, contains the most inexplicable antiquity, perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid rock, 80 or 90 feet long, and 40 broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end, are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Besides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand, cut in the stone; one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon: besides a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East-Indies, lies about 30 miles South of the Vingurla. The island is about 27 miles in compass. It has one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, and was surpassed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits upon this island equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese possessions on this coast, are under a Viceroy, who still keeps up the remains of the ancient splendor of the government. The rich Peninsula of Salsete is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies South of the Portuguese territories, and is governed by a Rajah, tributary to the Mogul. The English factory of Cowar is one of the most pleasant and healthful of any upon the Malabar coast. Kanora lies about 40 miles to the South of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its soil is famous for producing rice, that supplies many parts of Europe, and some of the Indies. The Kanorines are said generally to be governed by a lady, whose son has the title of Raja, and her subjects are accounted the bravest and most civilized of any in that Peninsula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole South-West coast of the Peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying
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on the West of Cape-Comorin, and called the dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic, and the country itself is rich and fertile, but infested with very poisonous serpents. It was formerly a large kingdom of itself. The most remarkable places in Malabar are Canannore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tillichery, where the English, have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of 30 or 40 soldiers. Callicut, where the English, French, and Portuguese, have small factories, besides various other distinct territories and cities. Cape-Comorin, which is the Southermost part of this Peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other side they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains so often mentioned, which traverse the whole Peninsula from South to North. On the opposite sides of the Cape the winds are constantly at variance; blowing from the West on the West side, and from the East on the Eastern side.

In the little district of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraved on copperplates in Hebrew characters. The like discoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Asia, which have occasioned various speculations among the learned.

The E M P I R E of C H I N A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 1440 } Breadth 1260 }	between	{ 20 and 42 North Latitude. { 98 and 123 East Longitude.
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Boundaries.] IT is bounded by the Chinese Tartary, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the East; by the Chinese Sea, South; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries of Tibet and Russia, on the West.

Divisions.] The great division of this empire is into fifteen provinces, (exclusive of that of Lyau-tong, which is situate without the great wall, though under the same dominion;) each of which might, for their largeness, fertility, populousness, and opulence, pass for so many distinct kingdoms.

The

The informations concerning China are drawn from the papers of Jesuits, and other religious, sent thither by the Pope, but whose missions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of those fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts are justly to be suspected. The name is probably owing to a Chinese word, signifying Middle, from a notion the natives had that their country lay in the middle of the world.

Rivers and Waters.] The chief are the Yamur and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Russian and Chinese Tartary; the Croceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in some places boiled to make it fit for use.

Bays.] The chief are those of Nanking and Canton.

Canals.] The commodiousness and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn stone on the sides, and they are so deep that they carry large vessels, and sometimes they extend above 1000 miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniencies of life, and it has been thought by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance for the safety of the passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. Those canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, renders China the most delightful to the eye of any country in the world, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature.

Forests.] Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests or woods, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

Air, Soil, and Produce.] The air of this empire is according to the situation of the places. Towards the North it is sharp, in the middle mild, and in the South hot. The soil is either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can minister to the necessities, conveniencies, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice-fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almost beyond description. The rare trees and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some are peculiar to itself.

The tallow tree has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a com-

mon

mon cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil, serve the natives as candles, but they smell strong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees, peculiar to China, are some which yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gums of some are poisonous, but afford the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of those, and many other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chinese never practising grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

Notwithstanding our long intercourse with China, writers are still divided about the different species and culture of the tea-plant. It is generally thought that the green and bohea grows on the same shrub, but that the latter admits of some kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, singio, and the like, are occasioned probably by the nature of the soils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant seems to be very simple, and it is certain, that some kinds are of a much higher, and more delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the finest, which is called the flower of the tea, is imported over land to Russia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greatest is between the bohea and the green.

The ginseng, so famous among the Chinese, as the universal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is discovered in the British America. When brought to Europe, it is little distinguished for its healing qualities, and this instance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginseng, however, is a native of the Chinese Tartary.

Metals and Minerals.] China produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of hurting industry; their gold mines, therefore, are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

Population and Inhabitants.] The number of Chinese, by the best accounts, does not fall short of fifty millions; a number disproportioned to what we are told of the vast population of particular cities and provinces. Most of those accounts are exaggerated; and persons who visit China, without any view of becoming authors, are greatly disappointed in their mighty expectations. The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses rather short. They have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces, by

the roots, with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on their crown. Their complexion towards the North is fair, towards the South swarthy, and the fatter a man is they think him the handsomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters, let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to shew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump, rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accomplishment, so that when they grow up they may be said to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the ancient Chinese, to palliate their jealousy.

The Chinese in general are the most dishonest, low, thieving set in the world, and they employ their natural quickness only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, especially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great ease, particularly the English, but they observe that none but a Chinese can cheat a Chinese. They are fond of law-disputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocrisy is without bounds, and the men of property among them practise the most avowed bribery, and the lowest meannesses, to obtain preferment.

Dress.] This varies according to the degrees of men among them. The men wear caps on their heads of the fashion of a bell, those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and a sash, a coat or gown thrown over them, silk-boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the South wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and sometimes it is dishevelled. Their dress differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open sleeves. The dress, both of men and women, varies according to the temperature of the climate.

Marriages.] The parties never see each other in China till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls, successively, she will expose or strangle them, which is the principal reason of so many children being found in the streets and highways.

People of note cause their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life-time. No persons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpse suffered to be brought into a town, if a person died in the country. Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather; before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves; and when the father of a family dies, the

name

name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

Language.] The Chinese language consists of a very few words, or rather syllables, which admit of so many variations, and so much modified by sounds and action, that it is generally thought no stranger can attain it, so as to speak it.

Genius and Learning.] The genius of the Chinese is peculiar to themselves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting, and yet in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true sublime and beautiful. The learning of the Chinese has been displayed in several specimens published by Du Halde, as well as of poetry, but they contain no more than a set of maxims and precepts, accommodated to public and private life, without any thing argumentative or descriptive. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no apparatus for astronomical observations; and metaphysical learning, if it existed among them, was only known to their philosophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of very short duration among them, and lasted very little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they ever will be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block-printing, for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacs, which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe. The invention of gun-powder is justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Jenghiz Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known nothing of small fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the *fire-pau*. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, porcelain, jappanning, and the like sedentary trades, is amazing.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] The volcano of Linesung is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes as to occasion a tempest in the air, and some of their lakes are said to petrify fishes when put into them. The artificial curiosities of China are stupendous. The great wall, separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and vallies, and reaches from the province of Xenfi to the Kang-sea, between the provinces of Pekin and Lænotum. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which is so well tempered, that though it has stood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Patcheli, to the East of Pekin, and almost in the same latitude; it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terrassed and cased

with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. P. Regis, and the other gentleman, who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the basis of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel a-breast with ease.

The artificial mountains present on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices, fabricated by hands. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired. They are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman stile of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful. They are said in the whole to be 1100, 200 of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe under the name of Pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nankin, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelaine Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the disagreeable taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which gave name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Pekin weighs 120,000 pounds, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. Their fire-works, in China exceed those of all other nations.

Chief Cities.] Some of these are immense, and there is great reason to believe their population is much exaggerated. The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Pekin, Nankin, and Canton. The former is the residence of the present royal family, and is moderately reckoned to contain two millions of inhabitants, but Nankin is said to exceed it both in extent and population. The walls of Pekin are fifty cubits high, and are defended by towers, at a bow-shot distance from each other, with redoubts at every gate. It is divided into two parts, like London and Westminster, the Chinese and the Tartar. The imperial palace, which is no other than an amazing assemblage of neat beautiful buildings, but without order or regularity, stands in the latter.

Trade and Manufactures.] Their industry is without taste or elegance, though carried on with vast art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable for records or printing to the European. Their ink, for the use of drawing, is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lamp-black. We have already mentioned the antiquity

antiquity of their printing, which they still do by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a secret in Europe, and brought immense sums to that country. The ancients knew and esteemed it highly under the name of Porcelaine, but it was of a much better fabric than the modern. The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gauzes, and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind; and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and avarice of the Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that since the discovery of the Porcelaine manufactures, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

Constitution and Government.] Though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chinese, before they were conquered by the Tartars, they have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient discipline in many respects. The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner, but, at the same time, the Emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarines, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes, and the degrees of submission, due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. The Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarines had modes of speaking and writing, different from those of other subjects, and the people were taught to believe, that their princes partook of divinity, so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached.

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental effect that often convulsed, and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men, and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them into arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying, that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their assistance, and it was thus those barbarians, who had great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, and they availed themselves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire.

By their institutions the Mandarines might remonstrate to the Emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government;

vernment; and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China, but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. The Emperor is styled, *Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*

Religion.] Though the ancient Chinese worshipped idols, and seemed to admit of a particular providence, yet their philosophers and legislators were atheists or materialists, and indulged the people in the worship of sensible objects, only to make them more submissive to government. The Jesuits long imposed upon the public of Europe on this head, and suffered their proselytes to worship Tien, pretending that it was no other than the name of God; but a strict scrutiny being made by the court of Rome, it was found to signify universal matter. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chinese legislators, introduced a most excellent system of morals among the people, and endeavoured to supply the belief of a future state, by prescribing to them the worship of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Christianity, but as we know little of their religion, but through the Jesuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous instances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chinese with the Christian religion. Those fathers, it must be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progress above a century ago in their conversions; but they mistook the true character of the Emperor, who was their patron, for he no sooner found that they were in fact aspiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exercise of their religion; since which time Christianity has made no figure in China.

Revenues.] These are said, by some, to amount to twenty millions sterling a-year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the use of the government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and very possibly amount to that sum.

Military and Marine Strength.] China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the Eastern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chun-tchi, the first Tartarian Emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners, and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil officers of the empire. The Emperor made Pekin the seat of his government, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition which was so much in their favour.

This security, however, of the Chinese from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at present is the diffuse of arms. The Chinese land-army is said to consist

of

of five millions of men, but in these are comprehended all who are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preservation of the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks, and other small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents.

History.] The Chinese pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility; but though their pretensions have been repeatedly confuted by learned men, they certainly have evidences of a much higher antiquity than any people on earth (the Jews excepted) can produce. Their exactness in astronomical observations, rude as they were in that science, before their commerce with the Europeans; the immemorial use of printing; their peaceable patriarchal scheme of government, and several other incidental advantages, contributed to this priority. A succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity, united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whose history, however, is wrapped up in mysteries; their Li-Laokum, and, above all, their Confucius. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the most dreadful effects, in proportion as its constitution was pacific, and they were attended with the most bloody exterminations in some provinces; so that though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession was more than once broken into.

Neither the great Jenghiz Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conquests they made there. The celebrated wall proved but a feeble barrier against the arms of those famous Tartars. After their invasions were over, the Chinese went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthless Emperor, T'iong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tse, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the Emperor, who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ou-san-quey, the Chinese general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refused to recognize the Usurper, and made a peace with T'iongate, the Manchew prince, who drove the Usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority, and, as has been already mentioned, wisely incorporated his hereditary subjects with the Chinese, so that in effect Manchew Tartary became an acquisition to China. He was succeeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the Jesuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government.

About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese. Though the intercourse between Europe and China has been greatly improved since that time, yet we know little of the internal events of China, excepting that our trade is now at a low pass in that country, owing to the vast distance and uncertainty of the voyage, the native chicanery of the Chinese themselves,

and the Europeans having supplied themselves either at home or from other countries with many of their commodities;

TARTARY in ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 4000 { between } 50 and 150 East Longitude.
 Breadth 2000 { 30 and 72 North Latitude.

Boundaries.] It would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon any accounts given us by geographers of the extent, limits, and situation, of those vast regions. Even the Empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, on the North; by the Pacific or Oriental Ocean, on the East; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the South; and by Muscovy, on the West.

Grand divisions.

Subdivisions.

Chief towns.

North-East division,	{ Kamschatka Tartars, } { Jakutskoi Tartars, . }	{ Kamschatka: Jakutskoi.
South-East division,	{ Bratski, }	{ Bratski.
	{ Thibet and Mongul } { Tartars, }	{ Poion. Kudak.
North-West division,	{ Samoieda, }	{ Mungasia;
	{ Ostiack, }	{ Kortsikoi.
South-West division,	{ Circassian & Astracan } { Tartary, }	{ Terki. Astracan.
	{ Siberia, }	{ Tobolski.
Middle division,	{ Kalmuck and Ussac } { Tartary, }	{ Bokharia. Samarcand.

Mountains.] The principal mountains are those of Caucasus, in Circassia, and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

Seas.] These are, the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, the sea of Kamschatka, and the Caspian Sea.

Rivers.] The rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of 1000 miles; the Obey, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tabol, Irty, Genes,

Genesâ or Jenska; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

Air, Climate, Soil, and Produce.] The air of this country is very different, by reason of its vast extent from North to South; the Northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the Southern being in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla, and Russian Lapland, are most uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with snow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where encumbered with unwholesome marshes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thick-nesses: though Siberia is as it were another name for a country of horror, yet we are told that the air of the Southern parts is tolerably mild, the soil furnished with good water, and cultivated with some success. The best accounts we have of its interior appearance, is from the ingenious French gentlemen who were sent thither to make astronomical observations; they all agree in representing it as a dismal region, and almost uninhabited. Astracan, and the Southern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry: the parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world: their Summers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is pestered, and the soil sometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height.

Metals and Minerals.] It is said that Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, jasper, lapis-lazuli, and loadstones; a sort of large teeth found here creates some disputes among the naturalists, whether they belong to elephants, or a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimsical and curious when polished with art and skill.

Animals.] These are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the North parts of Europe: their horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy; as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astracan there is a bird called by the Russians Baba, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of the river, and once seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, Diversions, and Dress.] We can form no probable guess as to the number of inhabitants in Tartary.

but from many circumstances we may conclude that they are not proportioned to the extent of their country: they are in general strong made, stout men; their faces broad, their noses flattish, their eyes small and black, but very quick; their beards are scarcely visible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots: the beauty of the Circassian women is a kind of staple commodity in that country; for parents there make no scruple of selling their daughters to recruit the seraglios of the great men of Turkey, and Persia: they are purchased, when young, by merchants, and taught such accomplishments as suit their capacities, to render them more valuable against the day of sale. In general, the Tartars are a wandering sort of people: in their peregrinations they set out in the spring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they live upon it till all its grass and verdure is eaten up: they have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchase cloath, silks, stuffs, and other apparel for their women: they have few mechanics, except those who make arms: they avoid all labour as the greatest slavery, their own employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horses. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Russian. Among themselves they are very hospitable, and wonderfully so to the strangers and travellers who confidently put themselves under their protection; and are naturally of an easy chearful temper, always disposed to laughter, and seldom depressed by care or melancholy. There is a strong resemblance between the Northern Tartars and some nations of Canada, in North America, particularly when any of their people are infirm through great age, or seized with distempers reckoned incurable, they make a small hut for the patient near some river, in which they leave him with some provisions, and seldom or never return to visit him. On such occasions they say they do their parents a good office, in sending them to a better world. Notwithstanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, especially towards the South, are tractable, humane, and are susceptible of pious and virtuous sentiments: their affection for their fathers, and their submission to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has distinguished them in all ages. History tells us that Darius, king of Persia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius sent an ambassador to demand where it was they proposed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting: they returned for answer, with a spirit so peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities nor cultivated fields, for the defence of which they should give him battle; but when once he was come to the place of their fathers monuments, he should then understand in what manner the Scythians used to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horsemanship from their infancy; they seldom appear on foot; and are dexterous in shooting at a mark, insomuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will cleft a pole with an arrow, though at a considerable distance: the dress of the men

is very simple and fit for action; it generally consists of a short jacket, with narrow sleeves made of deer-skin, having the fur outward; trowsers and hose of the same kind of skin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half sunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the smoke, and benches round the fire to sit or lye upon: this seems to be the common method of living among all the Northern nations, from Lapland Eastward, to the Japanese ocean. In the extreme Northern regions, during the Winter, every family burrows itself as it were under ground; and we are told, that so sociable are they in their dispositions, that they make subterraneous communications with each other, so that they may be said to live in an invisible city: they are immoderately fond of horse-flesh, especially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabbins extremely nauseous: though horse-flesh be preferred raw by some Northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been smoked and dried. The Tartars purchase their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or slave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of the tribes, the wife's son is always preferred to the succession. After a wife is turned of forty, she is employed in menial duties as another servant, and as such must attend the young wives who succeed to their places; nor is it uncommon in some of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

Religion.] The religion of the Tartars somewhat resembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours, for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the Popish religions. Some of them are the grossest idolaters, and worship little rude images dressed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free when matters do not go according to their own mind. The religion and government of the kingdom of Tibet, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, form the most extraordinary article that is to be found in the history of mankind: these people are governed by a living, eating, and drinking god, whom they believe to be omnipotent, and whom they call the Grand Lama, or Dalay Lama. He resides in a pagoda or temple, upon the mountain Putali, in a cross-legged posture, but without speaking or moving, otherwise than by sometimes lifting his hand in approbation of a favourite worshipper. Not only the Tibetians, but the neighbouring princes and people flock in incredible numbers, with rich presents, to pay him their adorations; and he generally appears to be a healthy, ruddy-faced young man, about twenty-seven years of age. This being appoints deputies under him, the chief of whom is called the Tipa, who takes care of all the temporal affairs of the kingdom, and has a number of substituted Lamas. These are properly the king and the governors of Tibet, both civil and military; it being below the dignity of the Grand Lama to superintend any temporal concerns.

As to the Grand Lama, he is himself the most miserable wretch in the empire. He is purchased, when young, from a healthy peasant, and privately brought up by the Lamas to the business of his

function, which is to move by clock-work, and to be carried in state to the place of his imprisonment, where he remains till next day, when the farce of his enthronement is repeated. When he falls ill, or becomes too old to act his part, he is dispatched by his ministers, who produce another, as like him as they can find in his room: and when any alteration is observed, they always give satisfactory reasons why the Dalay Lama has changed his appearance. He is never suffered to touch any of the fine fruits or viands that are brought to his shrine, all which are devoured by his ministers, who take care to diet him in his prison. Such are the general outlines of this pretended theocracy, in which all travellers are agreed, however they may differ among themselves as to modes and circumstances.

Curiosities.] These are comprehended in the remains of the buildings left by the above-mentioned great conquerors and their successors; they are, however, but little known to Europeans, though many of them are said to have been discovered by the wandering Tartars in the internal parts of the country. Some gold and silver coins of the same princes have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. In 1720, says Mr Voltaire, in his history of Peter the Great, there was found in Calmuc Tartary a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equestrian statue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscripts, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Tibet.

Cities and Towns.] Of these we know little but the names, and that they are no better than fixed herds. They may be said to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence against an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding divisions of this country, merit notice. Tobolski and Astracan are considerable cities, the first containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns, have lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Russian government. But we apprehend it will require a considerable time before any fixed plan of government can be formed in this country.

Commerce and Manufactures.] This head makes no figure in the history of Tartary, their chief traffic consisting in cattle, skins, beavers, rhubarb, musk, and fish. The Astracans, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a considerable traffic into Persia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and some European manufactures.

History.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the Northern parts of Europe, and furnished those amazing numbers who, under various names, destroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and those fine provinces, where learning and the arts resided, are

now

now scenes of horror and barbarity. This must have been owing to the dreadful massacres made among the nations by Jenghiz Khan and Tamerlane, and their descendants; for nothing is more common in their histories than their putting to the sword three or four hundred thousand people in a few days.

The country of Usbec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Jenghiz Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the Eastern world. It is so difficult to discover any remains of magnificence here, that some authors have absurdly questioned the veracity of the historians of these great conquerors, though it is better established than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The same may be said of Tamerlane, whose memory has been more permanent than that of Jenghiz Khan, and whose descent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the Emperor of Indostan himself. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharra, and is situated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles distant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

The present inhabitants of this immense common compose innumerable tribes, who range at pleasure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by separate Khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power, over strangers as well as natives, and who can bring into the field from twenty to 100,000 horsemen. Their chief residence is a kind of military station, which is moved and shifted according to the chance of war and other occasions. They are bounded on every side by the Russian, the Chinese, the Mogul, the Persian, or the Turkish empires; each of whom are pushing on their conquests in this extensive, and in some places fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgment of their independency, upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendship of these barbarians is of the utmost consequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency, and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chinese.

The method of carrying on war, by wasting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practised by all of them from the Danube Eastward. This circumstance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who must thereby be deprived of all subsistence; while the Tartars, having always many spare horses to kill and eat, are at no loss for provisions.

INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, which together form what has been called the empire of Japan, and are governed by a most despotic prince, who is sometimes called Emperor and sometimes King. They are situated about 130 miles East of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of North Latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of East Longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141st degree of East Longitude, and the 36th of North Latitude. The soil and productions of the country are pretty much the same with those of China, and the inhabitants are famous for their lacquer ware, known by the name of Japan. The islands themselves are very inaccessible, through their high rocks and tempestuous seas; they are subject to earthquakes, and have some volcanoes. The Japanese are the grossest of all idolaters, and so irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. Notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch, and Nang-hazel, in the island of Ximo, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. Notwithstanding their superstition and ignorance, the natives are a most industrious penetrating people; they excel the Chinese themselves in the manufactures that are common to both countries, and at least equal them in husbandry and the arts of life.

The **LADRONE ISLANDS**, of which the chief town is said to be Guam, East Longitude 140, North Latitude 14, are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth particular mention.

FORMOSA is likewise an oriental island. It is situated to the East of China, near the province of Fo-kein, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the South coast, and ending at the North. This is a very fine island, and abounds with all the necessaries of life.

The **PHILIPPINES**, of which there are 1100 in number, lie in the Chinese Sea, (part of the Pacific Ocean,) 300 miles South-East of China, of which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long, and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintudos, or painted people, and Mestres, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belong to the King of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip

Philip II. from whom they take their name. The inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as all the islands and places of the East-Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird Saligan affords that dissolving jelly which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprizingly in those islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon-tree is planted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriancy of the soil is almost incredible. The tree-amet supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which if cut yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St Philip. In the year 1762 Manilla was reduced by the English under General Draper and Admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling: the bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom is still unpaid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands, particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call Sultans: the Sultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan. But though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanoes.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE-ISLANDS, are not out of sight of each other, and lye all within the compass of 25 leagues to the South of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of East Longitude, and between one degree South and two North Latitude: they are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. Those islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of sagoe: their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities, which are monopolized by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. Those islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of those islands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria, and another, called Fort Orange, in Machiam.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG-ISLANDS, are situated between

127 and 128 degrees East Longitude, and between four and five South Latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor, the chief towns of which are Lantor, Poleron, Rosling, Pooloway, and Gonapi; the chief forts belonging to the Dutch on those islands, are those of Revenge and Nassau. The nutmeg covered with the mace, grows on those islands only, and they are entirely subject to the Dutch.

AMBOYNA. This island, is one, and the most considerable, of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situated in the Archipelago of St Lazarus, between the third and fourth degree of South Latitude, and 120 leagues to the Eastward of Batavia. Amboyna is about seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garrison of 7 or 800 men, besides small forts, who protect their clove-plantations.

The island of **CELEBES**, or **MACASSAR**, is situated under the equator, between the island of Borneo and the Spice-Islands, at the distance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. Notwithstanding its heat, it is rendered habitable by breezes from the North, and periodical rains. Its chief produce is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island, but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and indeed in almost all the Oriental Islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals: they are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked: they carry on a large trade with the Chinese; and if their chiefs were not perpetually at war with each other, they might easily drive the Dutch from their island. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewise fortified **GILOLO** and **CERAM**, two other spice-islands lying under the equator, and will sink any ships that attempt to traffic in those seas.

The **SUNDA ISLANDS** are situated in the Indian ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of East Longitude, and between eight degrees North, and eight degrees South Latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lambo, Banca, &c.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long and 700 broad, and is therefore thought to be the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is marshy and unhealthy, and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphire, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ourang-outang, one of which was dissected by Dr Tyson at Oxford, is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to resemble a man the most. The original inhabitants live in the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts,

darts, but the sea-coast is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of the island is Benjar-Masseen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacco on the North, Borneo on the East, and Java on the South-east, from which it is separated by the Straits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the Equator, extending five degrees, and upwards, North-West of it, and five on the South-East; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This island produces so much gold, that it is thought to be the Ophir mentioned in the scriptures; but its chief trade with the Europeans lies in pepper. The English East-India company have two settlements here, Bencoolen and Fort Marlborough, from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper.

The greatest part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of six degrees South, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world: the town itself is built in the manner of those in Holland, and is about a league and an half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded by regular fortifications; but its suburbs are said to be ten times more populous than itself: their government is a mixture of Eastern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies: the citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world; the Chinese residing in this island being computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence that ever was proved upon them, in 1740: this massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the Governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men constantly resides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the island and the neighbourhood of the city: their government is admirably well calculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military power; and England itself would find it difficult to shake that republican empire.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR islands, lie at the entrance of the Bay of Bengal, and furnish provisions, consisting of tropical fruits and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there: they are inhabited by a harmless, inoffensive, but idolatrous people.

CEYLON, is thought to be by nature the richest and the finest island in the world. It is situated in the Indian ocean, near Cape Comorin, the Southermost extremity of the Hither Peninsula of India, being separated from the coast of Coromandel by a narrow strait, and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The natives call it, with some shew of reason, the terrestrial paradise; and it produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long-pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, salt-petre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper,

besides cinnamon, gold, and silver, and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fish abound here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered; and, besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds: the Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island, however, is its cinnamon, which is by far the best in all Asia: though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, so that the rich and beautiful vallies are left in the possession of the Dutch, who have in a manner shut up the King in his capital city, Candy, which stands on a mountain in the middle of the island, so that he has scarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. In general, the inhabitants are a sober inoffensive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portuguese, and Dutch.

The cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this island, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the best; and the body of the tree, which when stripped is white, serves for building and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious island to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they expelled, and have monopolized it ever since to themselves.

The MALDIVES are a vast cluster of small islands or little rocks just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees North Latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of small shells, which go, or rather formerly went for money upon the coasts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity: of this tree they build vessels of 20 or 30 tons; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, cables, provisions, and firing, are from this useful tree.

The other islands in Asia, are those of KAMSCHATKA, and the KURILE ISLES in the Eastern or Pacific ocean, many of them lately discovered by the Russians, and but little known. We have already mentioned BOMBAY on the Malabar coast, in speaking of India.

Each of the Oriental islands has a particular tongue; but the Maylayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical language. The same may be almost said of their religion, for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Jewish, Mahometan, and other foreign superstitions.

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A F R I C A.

AFRICA is a Peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about 60 miles over, between the Red sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez, and its utmost length from North to South, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees North, to the Cape of Good-Hope in 34-7 South Latitude, is 4300 miles; and the broadest part from Cape Verd in 17-20 degrees West, to Cape Guarda-fui near the Straits of Babelmandel in 51-20 East Longitude, is 3500 miles from East to West. It is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean sea, which separates it from Europe; on the East by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red sea, and the Indian ocean, which divides it from Asia; on the South by the Southern ocean; and on the West by the great Atlantic ocean, which separates it from America.

	Nations.	Chief cities.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Religions.
Barbary.	Morocco,	Fez,	1080 S.	Mahometans.
	Algiers,	Algiers,	920 S.	Mahometans.
	Tunis,	Tunis,	992 S. E.	Mahometans.
	Tripoli,	Tripoli,	1260 S. E.	Mahometans.
	Barca,	Tolemeta,	1440 S. E.	Mahometans.
	Egypt,	Grand Cairo,	1920 S. E.	Mahometans.
	Bilidulgered,	Dara,	1565 S.	Pagans.
	Zaara,	Tegeffa,	1840 S.	Pagans.
Up. Ethiopia.	Negroland,	Madinga,	2500 S.	Pagans.
	Guinea,	Benin,	2700 S.	Pagans.
	Nubia,	Nubia,	2418 S. E.	Mah. & Pag.
	Abyssinia,	Gondar,	2880 S. E.	Christians.
	Abex,	Doncala,	3580 S. E.	Christ. & Pag.

The Middle parts, called LOWER ETHIOPIA, are very little known to the Europeans.

LowerGuinea.	Loango,	Loango,	3300 S.	Christ. & Pag.
	Congo,	St Salvador,	3480 S.	Christ. & Pag.
	Angola,	Loando,	3750 S.	Christ. & Pag.
	Benguela,	Benguela,	3900 S.	Pagans.
	Matanan,	No Towns,		Pagans.

Nations.	Chief cities.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Religions.
Ajan,	Brava,	3702 S. E.	Pagans.
Zanguebar, {	Melinda, or	4440 S. E.	Pagans.
	Mofambique,		
Monomotapa,	Monomotapa,	4500 S.	Pagans.
Monemugi,	Chicova,	4250 S.	Pagans.
Sofola,	Sofola,	4600 S. E.	Pagans.
Terrade Nat.	No Towns,	* * *	Pagans.
Caffaria, or {	Cape of Good	5200 S.	Most stupid
Hottentots, }	Hope.		Pagans.

The principal islands of Africa lye in the Indian seas and Atlantic ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India.

Islands.	Towns.
Babelmandel, at the entrance of the Red sea,	Babelmandel.
Zocotra, in the Indian ocean,	Calania.
The Comora Isles, ditto,	Joanna.
Madagascar, ditto,	St Austin.
Mauritius, ditto,	Mauritius.
Bourbon, ditto,	Bourbon.
St Helena, in the Atlantic ocean,	St Helena.
Ascension, ditto,	
St Matthew, ditto,	
St Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-Island, { ditto	St Thomas, Anaboa
Fernandopo,	
Cape Verd Islands, ditto,	St Domingo,
Goree, ditto,	Fort St Michael.
Canaries, ditto,	Palma, St Christophers.
Madeiras, ditto,	Santa Cruz, Funchal.
The Azores, or Western Isles, lye } ditto	Angra,
nearly at an equal distance from	
Europe, Africa, and America, . . }	

E G Y P T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles,	Degrees.
Length 600 }	between { 20 and 32 North Latitude.
Breadth 250 }	{ 28 and 36 East Longitude.

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean sea, North; by the Red sea, East; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia,

opia, on the South; and by the Desart of Barca, and the unknown part of Africa, West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Northern divisions contains,	Lower Egypt,	GRAND CAIRO, E. Lon. 32. N. Lat. 30. Bulac. Alexandria. Rosetto. Damietta.
Southern division contains,	Upper Egypt,	Sayd, or Thebes. Cosliar.

Air.] In April and May the air is hot, and often infectious; the inhabitants are blinded with drifts of sand; but these evils are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

Soil and Produce.] The vast fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain, (little falling in that country,) but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia, and the annual rains fall there, viz. the latter end of May to September, and sometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks, or mounds, which confine it, are cut by the Turkish Basha, attended by his grandees; but according to Captain Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is let into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants, which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of latuces and cucumbers, (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants,) one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a-year.

Animals.] Egypt abounds in black cattle, and it is said that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen, in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, those people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers,

gers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat called Ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal something resembling a lizard, that changes colour as you stand to look upon him, is found here as well as in other countries: the crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America: they are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws; and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour: the crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of rivers, and pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprises the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewise great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong, that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] Egypt, at present, is not near so populous as formerly, and its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being slaves to the Turks. They are, however, still very numerous, but the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The descendants of the original Egyptians are an ill-looking slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are distinguished by the name of Coptis; in their complexions they are rather sun-burnt than swarthy, or black: their ancestors were once Christians, and in general they still pretend to be of that religion, but Mahometanism is the prevailing worship of Egypt. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, consist of Arabs, or their descendants, who are of a deep swarthy complexion, and they are represented by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal tending their flocks, and many of them without any fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptis, who dress very plain; their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers, but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it: the Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body: the Jews wear blue leather slippers, the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow: the dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming, but their clothes are silk when they can afford it, and such of them as are not exposed to the sun have delicate complexions and features. The Coptis in general are excellent accountants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives

to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those made use of in Persia, and other Asiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling slight-of-hand men.

Religion.] The bulk of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and have among them their fantos or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and without any ceremony intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little; and the Christian Cops, which are here numerous, profess themselves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by the dint of money generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

Language.] The Coptic is the most ancient language of Egypt: this was succeeded by the Greeks, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the Califate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt: the Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

Curiosities and Antiquities.] Egypt abounds more with those than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described: their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown: the basis of the largest covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 f. et. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men. The mummy-pits, so called from their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said that some of the bodies thus embalmed are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth is a curiosity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves: it is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name.

The rush papyrus, which grows upon the banks of the Nile, is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it: the pith of it is a nourishing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practised in some parts of Europe: the construction of the oven is very curious.

Cities, Towns, and public Edifices.] In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the

the Great, are still entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh and vivid as when first laid on.

Alexandria, which lyes on the Levant coast, was once the emporium of all the world, and, by means of the Red sea, furnished Europe, and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles West from the Nile, and 120 North-West of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building Nero Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary seaport, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands 25 miles to the North-West of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation and delightful prospects, which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade.

Cairo, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air, and its narrow streets. It is divided into two towns, the old and the new, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles in circumference. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism about 300 feet deep: the memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they shew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name: they are certainly of vast antiquity, but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shewn in old Cairo, but Captain Norden suspects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lyes the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. The Christians of Cairo practise a holy cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably: the streets are pestered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor; the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a-dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pellusium; Bulac; Seyd, on the West bank of the Nile, 200 miles South of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes, and, by the few who have visited it, is reported to be one of the most capital antique curiosities that is now extant. The general practice of strangers, who visit those places, is to hire a janitary, whose authority

thority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small city, and gives name to the Isthmus that joins Africa with Asia.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The Egyptians export prodigious quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax; thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts; calicoes, yellow wax, sal-armoniac, saffron, sugar, fenna, and cassia; they trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, calicoes, and other merchandizes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria, some of which are laden on account of the owners, but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders. Captain Norden seems to think that the English consul and merchants make no great figure at Alexandria, but that they are in much less danger, and less troubled than the French.

Constitution and Government.] These seem to be but little known to modern times. It is certain that Egypt is subject to the Turks, and that even the meanest janissary is respected by the natives. A viceroy is sent to Egypt, under the title of the Pasha or Bashaw of Cairo, and is one of the greatest officers of the Ottoman empire; but as the interior parts of Egypt are almost inaccessible to strangers, we know little of their government and laws. It is generally agreed, that the Pasha is very careful how he provokes the little princes, or rather heads of clans, who have parcelled out Egypt among themselves, and whom he governs chiefly by playing one against another. He has, however, a large regular army, and a militia, which serve as nurseries from whence the Ottoman troops are recruited: the keeping up this army employs his chief attention. It has sometimes happened that those Pashas have employed their arms against their masters; and are sometimes displaced by the Porte, upon complaints from those petty princes.

A certain number of Bays or Begs, are appointed over the provinces of Egypt, under the Pasha: though these Bays are designed to be checks upon him, yet they often assume independent powers, and many of them have considerable revenues.

Revenues.] These are very inconsiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of its government. Some say that they amount to a million sterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

Military Strength.] Authors are greatly divided on this article. Captain Norden tells us, that it is divided into two corps of janissaries, and assafs are the chief; the former amounting to about six or eight thousand, and the latter to between three and four thousand. The other troops are of little account.

History.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the
4 K Pharaohs,

Pharaohs, sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyfes, the second king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of these princes, those wonderful structures, the pyramids, were raised, which cannot be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquests of Alexander being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between 2 and 300 years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second Calif of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy; and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek, but whether by seventy-two interpreters, and in the manner commonly related, is justly questioned; this translation is known by the name of the Septuagint, and is often quoted by commentators. This library was burnt by orders of the stupid and barbarous Calif, after he had obtained possession of Alexandria, and the books were used as fuel for six months for the public baths of the city. About the time of the Crusades, between the years 1150 and 1190, Egypt fell under the power of Nureddin, a prince of Syria, whose son, the famous Saladdin, was so dreadful to those Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for some time, made a figure under those usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, under Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate those Marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia, by the name of Gypsies.

T H E S T A T E S o f B A R B A R Y .

TH E empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded, on the North, by the Mediterranean sea; on the South, by Tafilet; and on the East, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lyes between the kingdom of Algiers to the East, and Morocco on the South, and is surrounded on other parts by the sea.

Algiers is bounded on the East by the kingdom of Tunis, on the North by the Mediterranean, on the South by Mount Atlas, and on the West by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr Shaw, who resided twelve years at Algiers in quality of chaplain to the British factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers respecting the states of Barbary, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the North and East; by the kingdom of Algiers on the West; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the South; being 220 miles in length from North to South, and 170 in breadth from East to West.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded, on the North, by the Mediterranean sea; on the South by the country of the Beriberics; on the West by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the East by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast, and the breadth is from 100 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

Air and Seasons.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, excepting in the months of July and August.

Soil, Vegetable and Animal Productions, by Sea and Land.] Those states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world, and to have a residence there was considered as the highest stage of luxury. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their constitution, yet they are still fertile, not only in corn, wine, and oil, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plumbs, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitch-

en-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and, by the report of Europeans who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for their great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces salt-petre, and great quantities of excellent salt, and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the States of Barbary, but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian, but their breed are now said to be decayed. Camels and dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden. Their cows are but small, and barren of milk. Their sheep yield but indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles, are found here. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the caspa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] Morocco was formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas, at present, it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report, that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital contains 10,000 families, above 3000 tradesmens shops, and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses; their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions: they cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them, and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The women are excessively handsome in their persons, and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore: the gentlemen in general are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour genteel and complaisant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the streets and city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the States on the coast; but is now much reduced, and the inhabitants,

who are said to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are pretty much of a piece with those of the Egyptians. The subjects of the Barbary states, however, in general, subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea: they are, notwithstanding, far inferior to the English, and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels: they are, if we except the Tunisiens, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the Emperor's service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country, are an hospitable, inoffensive people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment, and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

Dress.] The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tye a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat: their drawers are made of linen: the arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins: they never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign: they are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of a cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which they sit and lye. In eating, their slovenliness is shocking. Gold and silver vessels are prohibited: and their meat, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity.

Religion.] The inhabitants of those states are Mahometans; but many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the Califs. All of them are very fond of ideots, and in some cases their protection screens offenders from punishment, for the most notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of those states are now promiscuously called, have adopted the very worst parts of the Mahometan religion, and seem to have retained only as much of it as authorizes them to commit the most horrible villanies.

Language.] As the states of Barbary possess those countries that formerly

formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken, and sea-faring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, that is so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

Antiquities and Curiosities.] Some remains of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidences of their ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the old *Julia Cæsarea* of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are said to be still remaining, but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of Utica, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so over-run is the country with barbarism, that their very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings which remain still in tolerable preservation. Besides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the most stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract; these were erected under the Califs of Bagdat, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications of the country, both inland and maritime. Few or no natural curiosities belong to this country, excepting its salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Springs are found here that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

Cities and Public Buildings.] Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, lies now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but, by the best accounts, the common people live in a dirty slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, tho' it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. Their public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful; but the city, though for several ages it has braved the greatest powers in Christendom, could make but a faint defence against a regular siege; though through the bad conduct of the Spaniards, they have hitherto miscarried in their attempts on it.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. The town itself has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but never can make any considerable figure, on account of the inconveniencies attending its situation, particularly
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the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides, excepting the South-West.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lye scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of that kingdom, is supposed to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Salee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament obliged him to blow up its fortifications, and demolish its harbour; so that from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lyes within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, extremely complaisant, and they live in an elegant manner.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Gesula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The lower subjects of those states know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies, to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures, so that their exports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those of Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist in elephants teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, almonds, gum-arabic, and sandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and some inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber,

ber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities, the particulars of which are too many to specify. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco are but half those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, who take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected, are seldom punished.

Constitution and Government.] In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The Emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners, with their own hands, in all criminal matters, nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In absence of the Emperor every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is seldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the Califate government still continue; for in places where no military officer resides, the musti, or high priest, is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the Emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the Grand Signior to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomet.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish Pasha or Dey, who governs in the name of the Grand Signior, yet very little regard is paid to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in chusing the succeeding Dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte, but that is seldom refused, as the Divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the Dey is despotic, and the income of the Dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000*l.* a-year, without greatly oppressing the subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. These Deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the Grand Signior is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the King of Morocco, but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the Deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the Dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which consists of thirty Pashas. These Pashas seldom fail of forming parties, among the soldiers, against the reigning Dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council, and the strongest candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, tho' but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life, and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the Dey is unlimited, but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

Revenues.] These consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from

from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the King of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan subjects, and six crowns a-year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negroland, and other caravans, especially the slave-trade towards the South. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue in money, does not exceed 165,000l. a-year.

Military Strength at Sea and Land.] By the best accounts we have received, the King of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the strength of his army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro-slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Salée, and being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks, and cologies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison-duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the Dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse to the field, but as they are enemies to the Turks they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the Deys of all the other Barbary states keep up a force in proportion to their abilities, so that a few years ago they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish Emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

History.] In the times of the Romans these states formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek Emperors, the Califs, or Saracens of Bagdat, conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the Emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unsuccessful; and the inhabitants have in great measure shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The Emperors, or Kings of Morocco, are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were called Xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the Califat of the Saracens. They have been in

general a set of bloody tyrants, though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continued state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since; nor does the crown of Great Britain sometimes disdain to purchase their friendship with presents.

OF A F R I C A,

From the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope.

THIS immense territory is very little known; there is no traveller that has penetrated into the interior parts, so that we are ignorant, not only of the bounds, but even of the names of several inland countries. In many material circumstances, the inhabitants of this extensive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyssinia, who are tawny, and profess a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, and Paganism, they are all of a black complexion; in their religion, except on the sea-coasts, which have been visited and settled by strangers, they are Pagans; and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are grossly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in small societies, each governed by its own prince. In the succession to the throne force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the descendants, whether male or female.

The fertility of a country so prodigiously extensive, might be supposed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of soil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile: this arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces the utmost luxuriance, and in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and consequently of all other necessities, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection, and greatest abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Cafati, Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and silver. The baser metals likewise are found in these and many other

other parts of Africa. But the persons of the natives make the most considerable article in the produce and traffic of this miserable quarter of the globe. On the Guinea, or Western coast, the English trade to James Fort, and other settlements near the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard-ware and spiritous liquors, for the persons of the natives. Among the Negroes, a man's wealth consists in the number of his family, whom he sells like so many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the slave-trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. These are carried on from the same coast, where the Dutch and French, as well as English, have their settlements for this purpose. The Portuguese are in possession of the East and West coasts of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the Equator; which immense tract they became masters of by their successive attempts, and happy discovery and navigation of the Cape of Good-Hope. From the coast of Zanguebar, on the Eastern side, they trade not only for the articles above-mentioned, but likewise for several others, as senna, aloes, civet, ambergris, and frankincense. The Dutch have settlements towards the Southern parts of the continent, in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, where their ships bound for India usually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them spiritous liquors.

History.] The history of this continent is little known, and probably affords no materials which deserve to render it more so. We know from the ancients, who sailed a considerable way round the coasts, that the inhabitants were in the same rude situation near 2000 years ago in which they are at present, that is, they had nothing of humanity about them but the form; and it is very certain, that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good-Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the least impression on these savage mortals, or giving them the least inclination, or even idea of the European manner of life.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African Islands, some lye in the Eastern or Indian ocean, and some in the Western or Atlantic. The chief of those in the Indian ocean are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagascar, the Comora Islands, Bourbon and Mauritius.

ZOCOTRA. This island is situated in East Longitude 53, North Latitude 12, 30 leagues East of Cape Guardafui, on the continent of Africa; it is 80 miles long, and 54 broad, and has two good har-

bours. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the Tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the straits at the entrance of the Red sea, where it is situated in East Longitude 44-30, North Latitude 12, about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the South sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good-Hope, the trade by the Red sea is of little importance. The island is of little value, being a barren sandy spot of earth, not five miles round.

COMORA. These islands are situated between 41 and 46 East Longitude, and between 10 and 14 South Latitude, at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, is about 30 miles long, and 15 broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East-India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for refreshments. The inhabitants are negroes of the Mahometan persuasion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is situated between 43 and 51 degrees East Longitude, and between 10 and 26 South Latitude, 300 miles South-East of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from North to South, and generally between 2 and 300 miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good-Hope, forming a channel or passage, through which all European ships, in their voyage to and from India, generally sail, unless prevented by storms.

Madagascar is a pleasant, desirable, and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; watered with numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; some white, some negroes, some Mahometans, some Pagans. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1642; but the people disliking their government, they were driven out in 1651; since which the natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for slaves and plunder.

MAURICIUS. Maurice, or Mauritius, was so called by the Dutch,

Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their Stadtholder. It is situated in East Longitude 56, South Latitude 20, about 400 miles East of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding 50 large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasant rivers well stocked with fish; and though the soil is none of the most fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but is now in the possession of the French.

BOURBON. The isle of Bourbon is situated in East Longitude 54, South Latitude 21, about 300 miles East of Madagascar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the North and South sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the Monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times dangerous. On the Southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, smoke, and sulphur, with a hideous roaring noise. The climate here, tho' extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the sea and land: sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally without any other bad consequence than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruit, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there) aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odouriferous gums and raisins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea-tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle-doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye, and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were drove from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor; and here their East-India ships touch and take in refreshments.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar, and on the Eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

The islands in the Atlantic ocean, upon the African coast, are St Helena, Ascension, St Matthew, St Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira islands.

ST HELENA is situated in West Longitude 6.4, South Latitude 16, being 1200 miles West of the continent of Africa, and 1800 East

East of South-America. The island is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high and very steep, and only accessible at the landing-place, in a small valley at the East side of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the South-East, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the last, however, most part is destroyed by rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed; so that the flower they use is almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of callico, silks, muslins, arracks, sugar, &c.

St Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese on the festival of the Empress Helena, mother of the Emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here; and the English East-India company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. However, the English, under the command of Captain Munden, recovered it again, within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East-India ships that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East-India ships take in water and fresh provisions here in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them outward bound, that they very seldom see it then.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers are welcome.

ASCENSION. This island is situated in 7 degrees 40 minutes South Latitude, 600 miles North-West of St Helena: it received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day; and is a mountainous barren island, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but has a safe convenient harbour, where the East-India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtles or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above 100 pounds each.

St MATTHEW. This is a small island, lying in 6-1 West Longitude, and 1-30 South Latitude, 300 miles on the North-East of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese, who planted

and kept possession of it for some time; but afterwards deserting it, this island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. **ST THOMAS**, **ANABOA**, **PRINCES ISLAND**, and **FERNANDO PO**, are situated in the gulph of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and are still in the possession of that nation, and furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over-against which they lye, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 degrees West Longitude, and 14 and 18 degrees North Latitude. They were discovered in the year 1460 by the Portuguese, and are about 20 in number; but some of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. **St Jago**, **Bravo**, **Fago**, **Mayo**, **Bonavista**, **Sal**, **St Nicholas**, **St Lucia**, **St Vincent**, **Santa Cruz**, and **St Antonia**, are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendents of Europeans, and Negroes.

St Jago, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits; plenty of roots, garden-stuffs, and they have plenty of hogs and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. **Baye**, situated on the East side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships, those outward bound to Guinea or the East-Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of **Mayo** or **May**, immense quantities of salt is made by the heat of the sun from the sea-water, which, at spring-tides, is received into a sort of pan, formed by a sand-bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English drive a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to an hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governor and priests, are all Negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The Negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt, and is pleased to be invited a-board their ships. The sea-water is so excessive clear on this coast, that an English sailor, who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are, in general, expert at diving.

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The island of Fogo is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphurous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks out like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice-stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is situated within cannon-shot of Cape-Verd, North Latitude 14-43, West Longitude 17-20, and was so called by the Dutch, from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot, not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance arises from its situation for trade so near Cape-Verd, and has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom in 1663 it was taken by the English, but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1677 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when it was reduced by Commodore Keppel, but restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763.

CANARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate-islands, are seven in number, and situated between 12 and 19 degrees West Longitude, and between 27 and 29 degrees North Latitude, about 150 miles South-West of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langarote. These islands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greatest part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at 10,000 hogshheads annually. The Canaries abound with those little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel those in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 130 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile, as to produce two harvests in a year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak, of which captain Glas observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it at 150. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about 15 miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat, bishop of Rochester, published in the Philosophical Transactions, near three miles perpendicular. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts. These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans, destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the West coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they still belong.

MADEIRAS. The three islands called the Madeiras, are situated, according to the author of Anson's voyage, in a fine climate, in 32-27 North Latitude, and from 18-30 to 19-30 West Longitude.

about

about 100 miles North of the Canaries, and as many West of Sallee, in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill, of a considerable height, extending from East to West; the declivity of which, on the South side, is cultivated and interspersed with vineyards; and in the midst of the slope the merchants have fixed their country seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchal, seated on the South part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the sea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land, and even here, the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519: but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman, in the year 1344. Be that as it will, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richest wine, sugar, the most delicate fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax: it abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweet-meats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the West where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence was carried to the Brasils in America. The Portuguese not finding it so profitable as at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, Malmsey, and Tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. No less than 20,000 hogsheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West-Indies, especially to Barbadoes; the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when exposed to the sun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other islands, one is called Port Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds, except the South-West; and is frequented by Indianmen outward and homeward bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

AZORES. These are situated between 25 and 32 degrees West
 4 M Longitude,

Longitude, and between 37 and 40 North Latitude, 900 miles West of Portugal, and as many East of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St Miguel, or St Michael, Tercera, St George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century by Josuah Vander-Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was by stress of weather driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish islands. On his arrival at Lisbon he boasted of this discovery, on which the Portuguese set sail immediately and took possession of them, and to whom they still belong; and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air; but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered; and also by the inundations of surrounding waves. They are however extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, also cattle, fowl, and fish.

It is remarkable that no poisonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and if carried thither, will expire in a few hours.

St Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage, but is exposed to the South-East winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor of these islands, as well as the bishop.

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A M E R I C A.

THIS great Western continent, frequently denominated the New World, extends from the 80 degree North, to the 56 degree South Latitude; and, where its breadth is known, from the 35 to the 136 degree of West Longitude, from London, stretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greatest breadth 3690. It has two Summers, and a double Winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two great oceans. To the Eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the West it has the Pacific, or great South-Sea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it carries on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is composed of two great continents, one on the North, the other upon the South, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a sort of Isthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, so extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulph, which is formed between the Isthmus, and the Northern and Southern continents, lye an infinite multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile, and denominated the West-Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia, beyond the Cape of Good-Hope, which are called the East-Indies.

Though America in general be not a mountainous country, it contains the greatest mountains in the world. In South-America the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from North to South along the coast of the Pacific ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the Isthmus of Darien, to the Straights of Magellan, they divide the whole Southern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow. In North-America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of our settlements, separating our colonies from Canada and Louisiana, which we call the Apalachian, or Alegeney mountains; if that may be considered as a mountain which upon one side is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the rest of the country.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered; and that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North-America, those vast tracts of country, situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from North to South till it falls into the gulph of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Misaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers, scarcely inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the North, the river St Lawrence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almost navigable to their heads, lay open the inmost recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as are capable of producing the greatest advantages. The Eastern side of North-America, which makes a part of the British empire, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, and Potowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation.

South-America supplies much the two largest rivers (excepting the Mississippi) in the world, the river of Amazonas, and the Rio-de-la-Plata, or Plate River. The first rising in Peru, not far from the South-Sea, passes from West to East, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a course of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio-de-la-Plata rises in the heart of the country, and having its strength gradually augmented, by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such vehemence into the sea, as to make it taste fresh for many leagues from land. Besides these, there are other rivers in South-America, of which the Orinoco is the most considerable.

This country produces most of the metals, minerals, plants, drugs, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and silver of America has supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; and the gold and silver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

Diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, are likewise produced here, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewise to lower their value; and which, before the discovery of America, we were forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the Eastern world.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America, so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spaniards, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards have the largest and richest portion,

tion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North-America, to the Straights of Magellan in the South-Sea, excepting the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the Southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America is Great Britain, who derives her claim to North-America, from the first discovery of that continent, by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made any attempt to settle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, first shewed the way by planting a colony in the Southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress queen Elizabeth.

The multitude of islands, which lye between the two continents of North and South America, are divided among the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four small islands, which, in any other hands, would be of no consequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America.

BRITISH AMERICA.

NEW BRITAIN.

NEW BRITAIN, comprehending Labrador, New North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen seas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean on the East; by the bay and river of St Laurence and Canada, on the South; and by unknown lands on the West.

Mountains.] The tremendous high mountains in this country being eternally covered with snow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in the Winter, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same Latitude.

Bays and Straits.] The principal bay is that of Hudson, and the principal fraits are those of Hudson, Davies, and Belleisle.

Soil and Produce.] This country is extremely barren; to the Northward

ward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the earth is incapable of any better production, than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed has hitherto perished in this inhospitable climate; but, in all probability, we have not tried the seed of corn from the Northern parts of Sweden and Norway. In such cases, the place from whence the seed comes is of great moment. All this severity, and long continuance of Winter, and the barrenness of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of 52; the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

Animals. These are the mouse-deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermins, wild-cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fish, there are whales, morfes, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port-Nelson, in one season, 90,000 partridges, which are here as large as hens, and 25,000 hares.

All the animals of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In Summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals; when that season is over, which holds only for three months, they all assume the colour of the snow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprizing phenomenon. But what is yet more surprizing, the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudson's Bay, on the approach of Winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair than they had originally.

All the quadrupeds of this new world are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If, with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we should find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The Lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. They have no lions, nor, properly speaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent. The congar, the jaquar, and the jaquaretti among them, are despicable in comparison to the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. All the animals, therefore, in the Southern parts of America, are different from those in the Southern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those, which being able to bear the colds of the North, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain, and Canada, as Russia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tiger, which are natives of the South with us, are

utterly

utterly unknown in Southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America be smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, imported from Europe to Southern America, in a few generations becomes much less, but then it also becomes more prolific, and instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more.

Persons and Habits.] The men of this country shew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in cloathing themselves, and in preserving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where surrounds them, for the greatest part of the year; in other respects they are very savage. In their shapes and faces they do not resemble the Americans who live to the Southward; but are much more like the Laplanders and Samoeids of Europe, from whom they are probably descended. The other Americans seem to be of a Tartar original.

C A N A D A,

OR, THE

PROVINCE of QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 800 }	between	{ 61 and 81 West Longitude.
Breadth 200 }		{ 45 and 52 North Latitude.

Boundaries.] **T**HE French comprehended under the name of Canada a very large territory, taking into their claim part of New Scotland, New England, and New York, on the East; and to the West, extending it as far as the Pacific ocean. That part, however, which they have been able to cultivate, lay chiefly upon the banks of the river St Laurence, and the numerous small rivers falling into that stream. This being reduced by the British arms in the late war, is now formed into a British colony, called the Province of Quebec.

Air and Climate.] The climate of this extensive province is not very different from the Northern colonies, but as it is much farther from the sea, and more Northerly than a great part of these provinces,

ces, it has a much severer Winter, though the air is generally clear; but like most of those American tracts, that do not lye too far to the Northward, the Summers are very hot, and exceeding pleasant.

Soil and Produce.] Though the climate be cold, and the Winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts extremely fertile, in wheat, barley, rye, with other sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St Laurence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow-grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle.

Timber and Plants.] The uncultivated parts of North-America contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; the trees are exceedingly high, and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. This province produces two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs, two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three sorts of ash trees, the free, the mongrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November, the bears and wild-cats take up their habitation in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plumb-trees, the vinegas-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn, the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several sorts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn, French beans, gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hope-plant.

Metals and Minerals.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found, though we have not heard that any great advantage has been made of it as yet. This country also abounds with coals.

Rivers.] The principal are, the Outtaurais, St John's, Seguenay, Desprairies, and Trois Rivières; but they are all swallowed up by the
the

the river St Lawrence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and, taking its course North-East, washes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep that ships of the line contributed, in the last war, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Rosieres, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous.

Lakes.] Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of sweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; these are the lake Ontario, which is not less than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oswego, longer, but not so broad, is about the same extent. That of the Huron spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not less than 300, as is that of Michigan, though like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is 500 leagues in circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a stupendous fall, or cataract, which is called the fall of Niagara. The water here is near half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half-moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 157 feet, no words can express the consternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great an height, upon the rocks below; from whence it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing white as snow, being all covered into foam through those violent agitations. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of fifteen miles, and sometimes much farther. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud or pillar of smoke, and there is the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the sun and the position of a traveller favours. Many beasts and fowls here lose their lives, by attempting to swim, or cross the stream in the current above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below, and sometimes the Indians, thro' carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the same fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St Lawrence is the outlet of these lakes, by which they discharge themselves into the ocean.

Animals.] The animals that find shelter and nourishment in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild-cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares, and rabbits. The Southern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, swarmed with otters, beavers, or castors, of which the white are highly valued, being scarce, as well as the right black kind. The American

beaver is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and straw-colour, but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the skin before it is applied to any use; the green are the furs that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besmear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down that is manufactured into hats that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have of late found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles; the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a most delicious food, but when boiled it has a disagreeable relish.

The musk-rat is a diminutive kind of animal, resembling a beaver in every thing but its tail. It affords a very strong musk, and weighs five or six pounds.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light-grey, and dark-red. They love the cold countries; and when the Winter affords them no grass, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he takes proper measures to dispatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail so long, that Charlevoix says he twisted it several times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the snout to the tail. It is said, that this animal, winding himself about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twist his strong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffalo, a kind of wild ox, has much the same appearance with those of Europe; his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffalo hides are as soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make use of are hardly penetrable by a musket-ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal, but differs in no other respect from those of Europe. Wolves are scarce in Canada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country; their flesh is white, and good to eat; and they pursue their prey to the tops of the tallest trees. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common; and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very

very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy with-in their clutches by a thousand antic tricks, and then spring upon and devour them. The Canadian poll-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is intolerably nauseous; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour, with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when pursued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying squirrel will leap 40 paces or more, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed, and is very lively, but often falls asleep, and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's sleeve, pocket, or muff; he first pitches on his master, whom he will distinguish among 20 persons. The Canadian porcupine is less than a middling dog; when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, only they turn grey in Winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July, when it is somewhat dangerous to meet them; and they are said to support themselves during the Winter, when the snow lyes from four to six feet deep, by sucking their paws. Scarce any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chase supplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance; wood-cocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water-game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said by some writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a distance from houses. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of Spring. The fly-bird is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chaffer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake is the most remarkable. Some of them are as big as a man's leg, and five or six feet in length. Its tail is scaly like a coat of mail, and it is said there grows every year one ring, or row of scales upon it; so that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horse by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise, from which it has its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, nor is there, according to the best

accounts, any certain remedy for its poison; however, the rattle-snake seldom bites passengers unless it is provoked, and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers: nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good, which is used by the American apothecaries in particular cases.

Besides the great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea-plaife, salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaouraiou, sturgeon, the achigaw, the gilt-head, tunny, shade, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, mackarel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest are said to weigh 2000 pounds; their flesh is good eating: but the profit of it lyes in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting covers for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St Lawrence are said to yield a hog'shead of oil; and of their skins waistcoats are made, which are excessive strong, and musket-proof. The lencornet is a kind of kuttle-fish, quite round, or rather oval; there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hog'shead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a torch: they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaife is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The charouafou is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; but is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger: its colour is a silver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bonny substance, ragged at the edges. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, in such a manner that nothing is to be seen besides his weapon, which he holds raised perpendicularly, above the surface of the water: the fowls, which come to take rest, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it, but they are no sooner alighted, than the fish opens his throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The achigaw, and the gilt-head, are fish peculiar to the river St Lawrence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs only in size from those of the Nile.

Inhabitants and principal Towns.] The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almost innumerable; but these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spiritous liquors, of which they are excessively fond.

Quebec,

Quebec, the capital of all Canada, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St Lawrence and St Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of slate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants are computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a sudden to about a mile wide. The harbour, which lyes opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathom deep. It is flanked by two bastions, that are raised 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

The town called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the St Lawrence. It is much frequented by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, resort hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country here is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides the rivers.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the South shore. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well formed streets; and when it fell into the hands of the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner, and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the Southernmost side of the river, as the hill on the side of which the town stands falls gradually to the water. This place is surrounded by a wall and a dry ditch, and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it fell into the hands of the English it hath suffered much by fires.

NEW SCOTLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 350 }	between {	43 and 49 North Latitude.
Breadth 250 }		60 and 67 West Longitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by the river St Lawrence on the North; by the gulph of St Lawrence, and the Atlantic

lantic ocean, East ; by the same ocean, South ; and by Canada and New England, West.

Rivers.] The river of St Lawrence forms the Northern boundary. The rivers Rigouche and Nipisiguit run from West to East, and fall into the bay of St Lawrence. The rivers of St John, Passamagnadi, Penobscot, and St Croix, which run from North to South, fall into Fundy bay, or the sea a little to the Eastward of it.

Seas, Bays, and Capes.] The seas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Funday bay, and the gulph of St Lawrence. The lesser bays are, Chenigto and Green bay upon the Isthmus, which joins the North part of Nova Scotia to the South ; and the bay of Chaleurs on the North-East ; the bay of Chedibucto on the South-East ; the bay of the islands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Prosper, St Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Rysignol, port Vert and port Joly, on the South ; port La Tour, on the South-East ; port St Mary, Annapolis, and Minas on the South side of Fundy bay.

The chief capes are, cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, cape Port and Epis, on the East. Cape Fogeri, and cape Canceau, on the South-East. Cape Blanco, cape Vert, cape Theodore, cape Dore, cape Le Heve, and cape Negro, on the South. Cape Sable, and cape Fourche, on the South-West.

Climate.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate Zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. They are wrapt up in fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intensely cold. But though the cold in Winter, and the heat in Summer are great, they come on gradually, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

Soil and Produce.] New Scotland is almost a continued forest. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces of a shrivelled kind like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However, there are tracts in the Peninsula to the Southward, which do not yield to the best land in New England ; and, in general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar.

Animals.] This country abounds in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beaver, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May.

NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 550 } Breadth 200 }	between { 41 and 49 North Latitude. 67 and 74 West Longitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED on the North-East by New Scotland, on the West by Canada, on the South by New York, and on the East by the Atlantic.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The North division, or government,	{ New Hampshire,	{ Portsmouth.
The Middle division,	{ Massachusetts's Col.	{ Boston, N. Lat. 42. 20. W. Lon. 70. 40.
The South division,	Rhode Island, &c.	Newport.
The West division,	{ Connecticut,	{ New London. Hertford.

Rivers.] Their rivers are, Connecticut ; Thames ; Patuxent ; Merrimac ; Piscataway ; Saco ; Casco ; Kinebeque ; and Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

Bays and Capes.] The most remarkable bays and harbours are those formed by Plymouth, Rhode-Island, and Providence plantations ; Monument-Bay ; West-Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape-Cod ; Boston-Harbour, Piscataway, and Casco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape-Cod, Marble-Head, Cape-Anne, Cape-Netic, Cape-Porpus, Cape-Elizabeth, and Cape-Small-Point.

Air and Climate.] New England, though situated almost ten degrees farther South than the mother country, has an earlier Winter, which continues longer, and is more severe than with us. The Summer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the same latitude. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country so healthy, that it is reported to agree better with British constitutions than any other of the American provinces.

The sun rises at Boston, on the longest day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and sets at 34 minutes after seven in the evening ;

ing; and on their shortest day, it rises at 35 minutes after seven in the morning, and sets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longest day is about fifteen hours, and their shortest about nine.

Soil and Produce.] The lands lying on the Eastern shore of America, are low, and in some parts swampy, but farther back they rise into hills. In New England, towards the North-East, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The soil here is various, but best as you approach the Southward. Round Massachusetts's Bay the soil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the first planters found the grass above a yard high. The uplands are less fruitful, being, for the most part, a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadow and pasture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is an hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy; but the Indian corn flourishes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower sort of people: they likewise malt and brew it into beer, which is not contemptible. They raise in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax, and the fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a single apple-tree has produced seven barrels of cyder in one season.

The oaks here are said to be inferior to those of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and were wont to furnish the royal navy of England with masts and yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, gums, and balsm; and the soil produces hemp and flax.

Metals.] Rich iron mines, of a most excellent kind and temper, have been discovered in New England, and, if improved, might in a short time equal the Swedish.

Animals.] All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horses of New England are hardy, and serviceable, but smaller than the English, though larger than the Welch. They have few sheep; and the wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not near so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, minks, martins, racoons, sabbs, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the mose or moose-deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light-grey moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; and the large black moose, whose body is about the size of a bull. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots, or branches, to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and these prodigious horns are shed every year. He does not spring or rise in going like a deer;

a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to leap over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to a bay; but when chased, he generally takes to the water.

Here are great plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, black-birds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are, rattle-snakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared parts of the countries, where, with the owls, they make a most hideous noise in the Summer evenings.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of several kinds. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long, with strong teeth and jaws, persecutes the whale in those seas; but, afraid of his monstrous strength, they seldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobscot there is a mackarel fishery; they likewise fish for cod in Winter, which they dry in the frost.

Religion.] In the year 1768 the four provinces contained upwards of 700 religious assemblies; of which 36 only observed the forms of the church of England. Every particular society among them is independent of all other ecclesiastical jurisdiction; nor does there lye any appeal from their punishments or censures. The ministers of Boston depend entirely on the generosity of their hearers for support; a voluntary contribution being made for them by the congregation every time divine service is celebrated. Since the commencement of the war, the state of religion in this and the other British colonies is unknown to us.

NEW YORK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 300 } Breadth 150 }	between { 40 and 46 North Latitude. 72 and 76 West Longitude.

Boundaries.] **N**EW YORK is bounded on the South and South-West, by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; on the East and North-East, by New England and the Atlantic ocean; and on the North-West, by Canada.

East and East, by the Atlantic ocean; and by the Sound, which separates Staten-Island from the continent, and Hudson's river on the North.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief towns.
East division, contains,	Middlesex,	Perth-Amboy & New-Brunswick.
	Monmouth,	None.
	Essex,	Elizabeth and Newark.
	Somerfet, Bergen,	None. Bergen.
West division, contains,	Burlington,	BURLINGTON, { 40-8. N. Lat. 75-0. W. Lon.
	Gloucester,	Gloucester.
	Salem,	Salem.
	Cumberland,	Hopewell.
	Cape May,	None.
	Hunterdon,	Trenton.
	Morris, Sussex,	Morris. None.

Rivers.] These are Delaware, Raritan, and Passaic, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is said to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

Climate, Soil, and Produce.] The climate is much the same with that of New York; the soil is various, at least one fourth part of the province is barren, sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

P E N S Y L V A N I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 300 } Breadth 240 }	between { 74 and 81 West Longitude. 39 and 44 North Latitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerseys, on the East; and by Maryland, on the South and West, and contains the following counties:

Counties, Chief towns.

Philadelphia, } PHILADELPHIA, { N. Lat. 40.
W. Lon. 75-20.

Chester, } Chester.

Bucks. } Newtown.

Berks, } Reading.

Northampton, } Easton.

Lancaster, } Lancaster.

York, } York.

Cumberland, } Carlisle.

Bedford, a county Westward of the mountains upon the Ohio, purchased from the Six Nations in 1768 by Mr Penn, and established in 1771.

Besides the above, there are the three following,

Counties. Chief towns.

Newcastle, } Newcastle.

Kent, and } on Delaware, { Dover.

Sussex, } Lewes.

which form in some measure a distinct government, having an assembly of their own, though the same governor with the province of Pennsylvania.

Rivers.] The rivers are Delaware, which is navigable for vessels, of one sort or other, more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. Susquehanna, and Schuylkill, are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this province admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

Climate, Air, Soil, and Face of the Country.] The face of the country, air, soil, and produce, do not materially differ from that of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is sweet and clear, the Winters continue from December till March, and are so extremely cold and severe, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, August and September, are almost intolerably hot, but the country is refreshed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of our plantations, from New York to the Southern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines, of three or four species, all different from those we have in Europe. But whether from some fault in their nature or in their climate, or the soil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a sort of wine with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed, that the further Southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily; which property, as it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for slaves.

M A R Y L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 140	} between {	75 and 80 West Long.
Breadth 135		37 and 40 North Lat.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the North; by another part of Pennsylvania, and the Atlantic ocean, on the East; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the West.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeake; viz. 1. The Eastern; and 2. The Western division.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief towns.
The East division contains the counties of	Worcester,	Princess Anne.
	Somerset,	Snow Hill.
	Dorset,	Dorset, or Dorchester.
	Talbot,	Oxford.
	Cecil,	
	Queen Anne's,	Queen's Town.
The West division contains	Kent,	Chester.
	St Mary's county, . . .	St Mary's.
	Charles county, . . .	Bristol.
	Prince George county,	Masterkout.
	Calvert county, . . .	Abington.
	Arundel county, . . .	ANNAPOLIS, N. Lat.
	Baltimore county, . . .	39. W. Lon. 76-50. Baltimore.
	Frederic county, . . .	

Rivers.] The chief are Potowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn, and Sassafras.

Face of the Country, Air, Soil, and Produce.] In these particulars this province has nothing particular by which it may be distinguished from those already described. The hills in the inland country are of so easy ascent, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural production. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility through the soil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco, (which is the staple commodity of that country,) hemp, Indian corn and grain, which they now begin to cultivate in preference to tobacco.

VIRGINIA.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 750	} between {	75 and 90 West Longitude.
Breadth 240		36 and 40 North Latitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by the river Potowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the North-East; by the Atlantic ocean, on the East; by Carolina, on the South; and by the river Mississippi, on the West.

The cultivated part of this extensive province is divided into twenty-four counties, which are for the most part named after those of England.

Capes, Bays, and Rivers.] In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a freight between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeake, one of the largest and safest in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the South to the North, is about 18 miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is narrowest, the waters in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides both of Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahanock, and the Potowmac; these are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, without all manner of doubt, the country of the world of the most convenient navigation. The back country behind the Allegany mountains is every where watered by the Ohio, and the numerous branches of that noble stream.

Face of the Country.] The face of this country is so low towards the sea, that you are very near the shore before you can discover land from the mast-head. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of North-America.

Air and Climate.] In Summer the heats here are excessive, though not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the changes sudden and violent. Their winter-frosts come on without the least warning. To a warm day, there sometimes succeeds

ceeds such an intense cold in the evening as to freeze over the largest rivers.

The air and seasons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryness and moisture. In Winter they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleasant. Their Spring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June, the heat increases; and the Summer is much like ours, being refreshed with gentle breezes from the sea, that rise about nine o'clock, and decrease and increase as the sun rises or falls. In July and August these breezes cease, and the air becomes stagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occasion all the train of diseases incident to a moist climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any mischief.

Soil and Produce.] Towards the sea-shore, and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which for many years, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a distance from the water there is a lightness and sandiness in the soil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and helped by kindly sun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

The forests are covered with all sorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or bushes grow beneath; so that people travel with ease through the forests on horseback, under a fine shade, to defend them from the sun; the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours, and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneous in many places, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake-root, and the ginseng of the Chinese, are here in great plenty. There is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, before their difference with Britain, were so engrossed with the culture of the tobacco-plant that they thought, if corn sufficient for their support was reared, they did enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced not only for their own consumption, but for export, though not in such quantities as might be expected from the nature of the soil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

Animals.] There were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs, in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the Southern colonies, run wild. Beef and pork sold here, before the civil war, from one penny to two-pence a-pound; their fattest pullets at sixpence a-piece; chickens, at three or four shillings, a-dozen; geese, at ten-pence; and turkeys, at eighteen pence a piece. But fish, and wild-fowl, were still cheaper in the season, and deer sold from five to ten shillings a-piece. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in some still lower. Besides the animals transported from Europe, those natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers; a sort of panther or tyger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewise that

that singular animal called the opossum; it is about the size of a cat, and besides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itself, which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which discovers a great number of teats on the usual part of the common belly. When the young are brought forth, the female receives them into the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all sorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, called from the country, whose plumage is crimson and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, all arrayed in scarlet, green and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nourishment, but is too delicate to be brought alive into Britain.

NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA, WITH GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 700 }	between	{ 76 and 91 West Longitude.
Breadth 380 }		{ 30 and 37 North Latitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by Virginia, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean, on the East; by the river St John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the South; and by the Mississippi, on the West.

Divisions.	Counties.	Towns.
North Carolina contains the counties of,	{ Albemarle, Bath county, and Clarendon in part,	{ Divided into parishes but have no towns.
The Middle division, or South Carolina, contains the counties of,	{ Craven county, Berkley county, Culleton county, Granville county,	{ St James. Christ-Church. CHARLESTOWN, W. Lon. 79-12. N. Lat. 32-45. Port-Royal.
The South division, contains only, . .	{ Georgia,	{ SAVANNAH, N. Lat. 31- 55. W. Lon. 80-20. Frederica. Parrisburgh.

Rivers.]

Rivers.] These are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamlico, Neus, Cape Fear, or Clarendon river: Pedee, Santee, Savannah, Altamaha, or George river, and St Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida: all which rivers rise in the Apalachian mountains, and, running East, fall into the Atlantic ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yafous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river; and many other noble streams which fall into the Mississippi, or the gulph of Mexico.

Seas, Bays, and Capes.] The only sea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic ocean; which is so shallow near the coast, that a ship of any great burden cannot approach it, except in some few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the best are those of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle river, and Pamptico. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George-town, Charlestown, and Port-Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Altamaha form good harbours.

The most remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 deg. odd minutes North Lat. Cape Fear to the South of it, and Cape Cartaret still further South.

Climate and Air.] There is not any considerable difference between the climate of these countries. In general, it agrees with that of Virginia, but where they differ it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The Summers indeed are of a more intense heat than in Virginia, but the Winters are milder and shorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is subject to sudden transitions, from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to such violent extremities as Virginia. The Winters are seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the frosts have never sufficient strength to resist the noon-day sun; so that many tender plants, which do not stand the Winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina; for they have oranges in great plenty near Charlestown, and excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour.

Soil, Produce, and Face of the Country.] In this respect too there is a considerable coincidence between these countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia is not of near so good a soil as the other provinces. The whole country, where it is not cleared, is in a manner one forest. The trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia; and by the different species of these, the quality of the soil is easily known. The land in Carolina is easily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the forests mostly consist of tall trees at a considerable distance. Those grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark sand, intermixed with loam; and as all their lands abound with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhausted; for here they never use any manure. The pine-barren is the worst of all; this is an almost perfectly white sand, yet it bears the pine-tree, and

some other useful plants naturally, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this species of land is cleared, for two or three years together, it produces very good crops of Indian corn and pease; and when it lyes low and is flooded, it even answers for rice. But what is most fortunate for this province is, that this worst part of its land is favourable to a species of the most valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, swampy grounds, bear their great staple, rice. The country near the sea is much the worst, in many parts little better than an unhealthy salt marsh; for Carolina is all an even plain for eighty miles from the sea, not a hill, nor a rock, nor scarce even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles distance from Charlestown, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholesome, and the Summer heat much more temperate than in the flat sandy coast.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and soil have something in them so kindly, that the latter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increase.

The chief productions of these valuable provinces appear to be vines, wheat, rice, Indian-corn, barley, oats, pease, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine-trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding silkworms; sarsaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, rosin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds, and another which yields a balm thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees besides these, that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent spirits, and mead as good as Malaga sack. Of all these, the three great staple commodities were, indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing surprizes an European more at first sight, than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of these trunks, when hollowed, the people of Charlestown, as well as the Indians, make canoes, which serve to transport provisions and other goods from place to place, and some of them are so large, that they will carry 30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure-boats.

Animals.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia; but in Carolina they have a still greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiously; to have 2 or 300 cows is very common, but some have a thousand or upwards.

These

These ramble all day at pleasure in the forests; but their calves being separated and kept in fenced pasture, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows; these are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horses in the woods. It is surprising that the cattle should have increased so quickly since their being first imported from Europe, while there are such numbers of wolves, tigers, and panthers, constantly ranging the woods and forests. We have already observed, that these animals are less ravenous than the beasts of Africa and Asia; they very seldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and, when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

Chief Towns.] The only town in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charlestown, the metropolis, in South-Carolina, which for size, beauty, and trade, may be considered as one of the first in British America. It is admirably situated on the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than 200 tuns burden from entering. The town is regularly and pretty strongly fortified by nature and art; the streets are well cut; the houses are large and well built, some of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handsome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running East and West extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about 1000 houses, and was the seat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the assembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond description. Several handsome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; the people are shewy and expensive in their dress and way of living; so that every thing conspires to make this by much the liveliest, the loveliest, and politest place, as it is one of the richest too in all America.

The mouths of the rivers in North Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, vessels of above 70 or 80 tuns. This lays a weight upon their trade by the expence of lighterage. Edenton was formerly the capital of North-Carolina, which is no more than a trifling village.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 500	} between	{ 80 and 91 West Longitude.
Breadth 440		{ 25 and 32 North Latitude.

Boundaries.] **T**HIS country, which was ceded by Spain to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace, and includes a

part of Louisiana, is now divided into the governments of East and West Florida.

Rivers.] These are the Mississippi, which forms the Western boundary of Florida, and is one of the finest in the world, as well as the largest; for including its turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with sands and shoals, which deny access to vessels of any considerable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pitman says seventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain season, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from shoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almost to its source. The Mobile, the Apalachicola, and St John's rivers, are also large and noble streams.

Bays and Capes.] The principal bays are, St Bernard's, Ascension, Mobile, Pensacola, Dauphin, Joseph, Apalaxy, Spiritu-Santo, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Samblas, Ancote, St Augustine, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the Peninsula, which terminates the British America Southward.

Air and Climate.] It is very difficult to reconcile the various accounts that have been given of these particulars in this country. The people who obtained grants of lands in Florida, and were desirous to settle or sell them, represented the whole country as a Canaan, and St Augustine, in East Florida, as the Montpelier of America: they tell us, that the climate of Florida is an exceeding agreeable medium between the scorching heat of the tropics, and the pinching cold of the Northern Latitudes; that there is indeed a change of the seasons, but it is a moderate one: in November and December, many trees lose their leaves, vegetation goes on slowly, and the Winter is perceived, but so mild, that snow is never seen there; and the tenderest plants of the West-Indies, such as the plantain, the allegator-pear-tree, the banana, the pine-apple, the sugar-cane, &c. remain unhurt during the Winter, in the gardens of St Augustine: that the fogs and dark gloomy weather, so common in England, are unknown in this country: and though at the equinoxes, especially the Autumnal, the rains fall very heavy every day for some weeks together, yet, when the shower is over, the sky immediately clears up, and all is calm and serene.

Others have represented this very coast as the grave and burying-place of all strangers who are so unhappy as to go there; affirming, as a truth, the well-known story propagated soon after the last peace, that upon the landing of our troops to take possession of Florida, the Spaniards asked them, "What crimes have you been guilty of at home?" We shall take the liberty to observe on this head, that though the air here is very warm, the heats are much allayed by cool breezes from the seas which environ and wash a considerable

part

part of this country. The inland countries towards the North feel a little of the roughness of the North-West wind, which, more or less, diffuses its chilling breath over the whole continent of North-America, carrying frost and snow many degrees more to the Southward in these regions, than the North-East wind does in Europe.

That the air of Florida is pure and wholesome, appears from the size, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who, in these respects far exceed their more Southern neighbours the Mexicans. That when the Spaniards quitted St Augustine, many of them were of great age, some above 90. Since it came into the hands of Great Britain, many gentlemen in a deep consumption have ascribed the recovery of their health to that climate; and it is a certain fact, that the ninth regiment, stationed on different parts of the coast, did not lose a single man by natural death in the space of twenty months.

Soil, Productions, and Face of the Country.] Many of the disadvantages indiscriminately imputed to the soil of the whole country, should be confined to East-Florida, which indeed, near the sea, and 40 miles back, is flat and sandy. But even the country round St Augustine, in all appearance the worst in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a-year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a larger size, and produce better fruit than in Spain and Portugal. The inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing spontaneously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewise favourable to the rearing of European productions. There is not, in the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by nature to afford not only all the necessities of life, but also all the pleasures of habitation, than that part of West Florida which lyes upon the banks of the Mississippi.

From the climate of Florida, and some specimens sent home, there is reason to expect, that cotton, sugar, wine, and silk, will grow here as well as in Persia, India, and China, which are in the same Latitudes. This country also produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethysts, turquoises, lapis-lazuli, and other precious stones; copper, quick-silver, pit-coal, and iron ore: pearls are found in great abundance on the coast of Florida: mahogany grows on the Southern parts of the Peninsula, but inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here so numerous, that you may purchase a good saddle-horse, in exchange for goods of five shillings value prime-cost; and there are instances of horses being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

Population, Commerce, and chief Towns.] Notwithstanding the luxury of the soil, the salubrity of the air, the cheapness and plenty of provisions, the encouragement of the British government, and the wise measures taken by the governors sent thither to settle these provinces, the number of English inhabitants was for some time very inconsiderable, and the increase of population extremely slow, and that proceeding from unavoidable causes.

When we consider the long and destructive wars which the mother country

country has supported by sea and land against the House of Bourbon; the emigrations to our other settlements in North-America, the East and West-Indies, the numerous manufactures carrying on at home; and the prodigious shipping employed in transporting these to every corner of the globe; it would appear, that, instead of peopling our colonies, we wanted a supply of hands at home, and of course, the acquisition of a new territory, without people to plant it, must be an incumbrance to the mother country, especially as the civil and military establishments of both Floridas are said to cost the government near 100,000*l.* per annum. It is probable, however, that the present war with the Northern colonies may be the means of increasing the population of Florida very considerably, as many families will undoubtedly choose to take refuge there, in order to avoid the calamities of war.

The chief town in West-Florida is Pensacola, North Latitude 30-22. West Longitude 87-20. which is situated within the bay of the same name; on a sandy shore, that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the gulph of Mexico, in which vessels may lye in safety against every kind of wind, being surrounded by land on every side.

St Augustine, the capital of East-Florida, North Latitude 29-45. West Longitude 81-12. runs along the shore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and inclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, which is called Fort St John, and the whole is well furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the North and South breakers, which form two channels, whose bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

The climate and soil are extremely favourable for the raising of silk. Some attempts have indeed been made in Carolina and Georgia, where in one place the raising of silk is become a kind of staple commodity; but there the worms are often injured by the cold mornings, at other times they are benumbed and made sickly for want of warmth, and sometimes actually destroyed; an inconvenience which is also frequently experienced in Italy: but the more Southern climate of Florida has placed this tender insect beyond the reach of such disasters; and experience will no doubt shew, that the air and climate of this country is as favourable to the silk-worm as it is to the mulberry-tree on which it feeds, and which grows here in its utmost luxuriance. The numerous vines too, which grow up spontaneously in the forests of this country, prognosticate, that the produce of Florida may, with proper cultivation, gladden the heart of Britons in future ages.

WEST INDIES.

BETWEEN the two continents of America lye an innumerable multitude of islands which we call the West-Indies, and which, such

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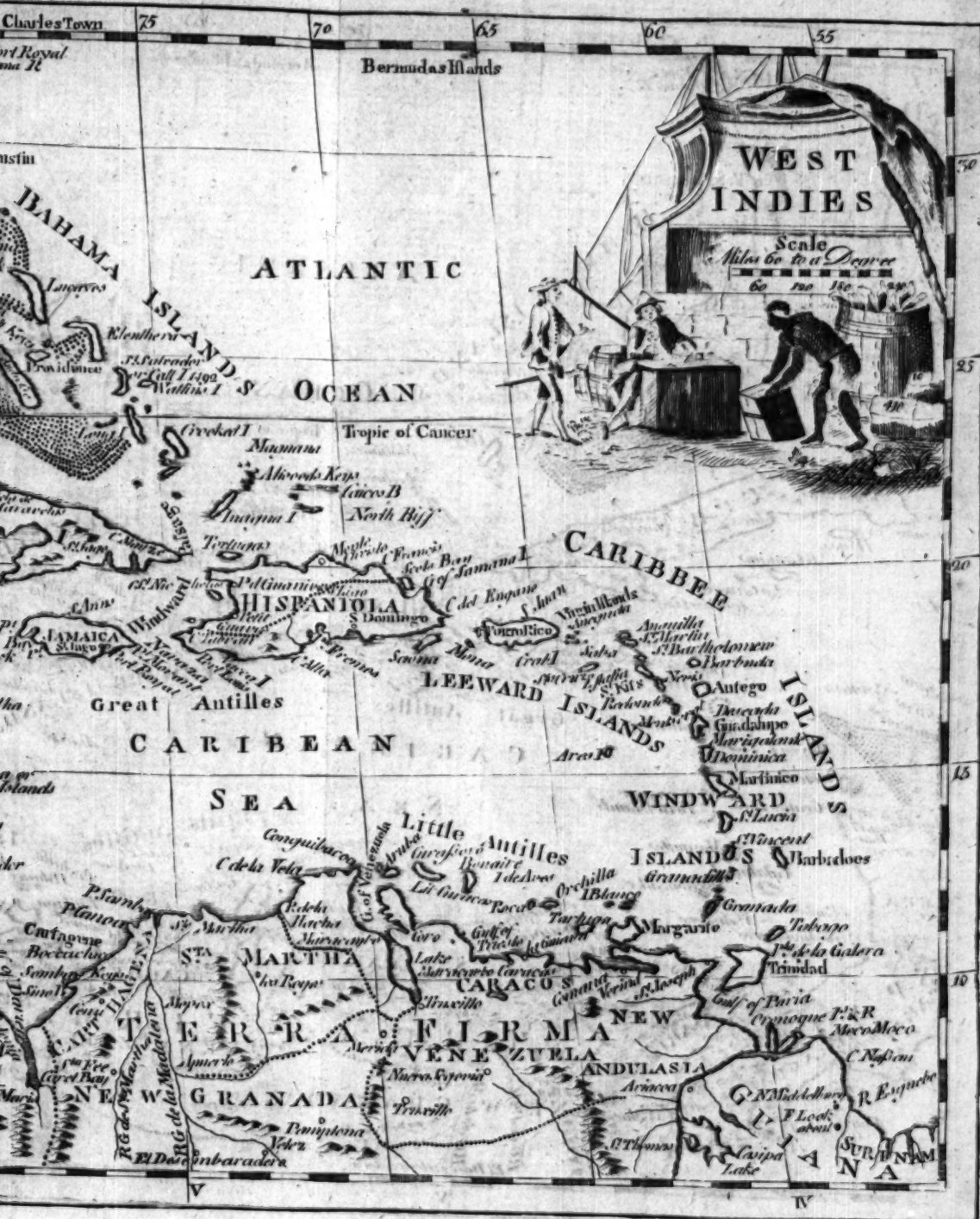
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such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. The climate in all our West-India islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lye within the tropics, and that the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the North, and never returning further from any of them than about 30 degrees to the South, they are continually subjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade-wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from its centre, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

By the same remarkable providence in the disposing of things, it is, that when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield them from his direct beams; and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West-Indies (and we may add in the East-Indies) are by no means so moderate as with us. Our heaviest rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers rise in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their source within the tropics swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; and so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, which they imagined to be dried and scorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable, when in reality some of the largest rivers in the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniencies of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West-Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frost, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailstones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moisture which alone does not seem to be a sufficient cause, or to a greater quantity of a sulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are subject to the action of such causes, rust and canker in a very short time: and this cause, perhaps as much as the heat itself, contributes to make the climate of the West-Indies unfriendly and unpleasant to an European constitution.

It is in the rainy season (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assaulted by hurricanes; the most terrible calamity to which they are subject (as well as the people in the East-Indies) from the climate; it is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short,

short, with every circumstance, which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, they see as the prelude to the ensuing havoc, whole fields of sugar-canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country. The strongest trees of the forest are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their wind-mills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper-boilers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection, the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour rises five feet, rushes in upon them with an irresistible violence.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon. If it comes at the full moon, observe these signs. That day you will see the sky very turbulent; you will observe the sun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all those clouds and mists which usually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling sound, like the rushing of a great wind. At night the stars seem much larger than usual, and surrounded with a sort of burs; the North-West sky has a black and menacing look; the sea emits a strong smell, and rises into vast waves, often without any wind; the wind itself now forsakes its usual steady Easterly stream, and shifts about to the West; from whence it sometimes blows with intermissions violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herself is surrounded with a great bur, and sometimes the sun has the same appearance. These are signs which the Indians of these islands taught our planters, by which they can prognosticate the approach of an hurricane.

The grand staple commodity of the West-Indies is sugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China, in very early times, from whence we had the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not settled whether the cane from which this substance is extracted be a native of America or brought hither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but however the matter be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best sugar which comes to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet in nature; and which, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar a meaner spirit is procured. The tops of the cane, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

To particularize the commodities proper for the West-India market would be to enumerate all the necessaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell, but from
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the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe; and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carrying out more or less as a venture, the West-India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West-Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant in accumulating riches.

Before the late war, there were allowed to be in our West-Indies at least 230,000 negro slaves; and upon the highest calculation, the whites there in all did not amount to 90,000 souls. This disproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more visible every day, some writers have endeavoured to account for, by alledging that the enterprising spirit, which the novelty of the object, and various concurrent causes, had produced in the last century, has decayed very much. That the disposition of the West-Indians themselves, who for cheapness choose to do every thing by negroes which can possibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the small number of whites of the lower stations. Such indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in constant terror of insurrections and plots, many families employ 25 or 30 negroes as menial servants, who are infinitely the most dangerous of the slaves, and in case of any insurrection, they have it more in their power to strike a sudden and fatal blow.

The islands of the West-Indies lye in the form of a bow, or semicircle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida North, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South-America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward-Islands. Sailors distinguish them into Windward and Leeward-Islands; with regard to the usual courses of ships, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthage, or New Spain and Portobello. The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA lyes between the 75th and 79th degrees of West Longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 North Latitude. From the East and West it is in length about 140 miles; and in the middle about 60 in the breadth, growing less towards each end, in the form of an egg.

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks, tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a stupendous manner upon one another. These rocks, though containing no soil on their surface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flourishing in a perpetual spring; they are nourished by the rains, which often fall, or the mists which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their roots penetrating the crannies of the rocks, industriously seek out for their own support. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers of pure wholesome water, which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright

verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this great chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies, or plains, between these ridges, are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

The longest day in Summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in Winter about eleven; but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West-Indies are into the dry and wet seasons. The air of this island is, in most places, excessive hot and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea-breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness, and the lightning in these violent storms frequently does great damage. In February or March they expect earthquakes, during the months of May and October the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together.

Sugar is the greatest and most valuable production of this Island. Cacao was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces also ginger, and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the manchineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worst poisons in nature; the mahogany, in such use with our cabinet-makers, and of the most valuable quality, but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. The Indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is still so. No sort of European grain grows here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them resembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruits grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons; limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, foursops, papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly pears, avocado-pears, melons, pom-pions, guavas, and several kinds of berries, also garden stuffs in great plenty and good. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs, and their flesh is exceeding sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome, and hardy; and when well made generally sell for 30 or 40*l.* sterling. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and sea-turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks, and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and gallewasp: but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any part
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of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a pen-knife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the bone.

Indigo was once very greatly cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the island to so great a degree, that in the parish of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are said to have had no less than 300 gentlemen's coaches; and there is great reason to believe, that there were many more persons of property in Jamaica formerly than are now, though perhaps they had not those vast fortunes which dazzle us in such a manner at present. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diseases, which, treading on the heels of the former calamities, swept away vast multitudes.

Port-Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The convenience of this harbour, which was capable to contain 1000 sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greatest ease, weighed so much with the inhabitants, that they chose to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, nor even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates were called Buccaneers, they fought with an inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital with as inconsiderate dissipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to the foundations, so totally overwhelmed this city, as to leave, in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses, and two thousand people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and did not overset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts, mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city, but it was a second time, ten

years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants therefore resolved to forsake it for ever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston, which is lately become the capital of the island. It consists of upwards of 1000 houses, many of them handsomely built, and in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticos, and every convenience for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingston stands St Jagode-la-Vega, a Spanish town, which, though at present inferior to Kingston, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

On Sundays, or court-time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of silk, and vests trimmed with silver. At other times they generally wear only thread stockings, linen drawers, a vest, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men-servants wear a coarse linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowsers of the same, and a check shirt. The negroes, except those who attend gentlemen, who have them dressed in their own livery, have once a year Osnaburghs, and a blanket for cloathing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a loose night-gown carelessly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off their dishabille, and appear with a good grace, in all the advantages of a rich and becoming dress.

The common drink of persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter sells for a shilling per bottle. But the general drink, especially among those of inferior rank, is rum-punch, which they call Kill-Devil, because, being frequently drank to excess, it heats the blood, brings on fevers, which in a few hours send them to the grave, especially those who are just come to the island, which is the reason that so many die here upon their first arrival.

English money is seldom seen here, the current coin being entirely Spanish. There is no place where silver is so plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for less than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets beef, pork, fowl, and fish, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton sells at nine-pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb: there are indeed some gentlemen well versed in literature, and who send their children to Great-Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous dissipation.

The misery and hardships of the negroes is truly moving; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive so shortens their lives, that instead of increasing by the course of nature, many thousands are annually imported to the West-Indies, to supply the place of those who pine and die by the hardships they receive. They are indeed stubborn and untractable for the most part, and they must be ruled with a rod of iron,

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but they ought not to be crushed with it, or to be thought a sort of beasts, without souls, as some of their overseers do at present, though some of these tyrants are themselves the dregs of this nation, and the refuse of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their situations easy and comfortable; and it has been observed, that in North-America, where, in general, these poor wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. The slaves, on their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale; they are then generally very simple and innocent creatures, but they soon become roguish enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuse their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every negroe returns to his native country after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burden of life easy, which would otherwise to many of them be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprizing to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it; they are quite transported to think their slavery is near at an end, that they shall revisit their native shores, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negroe is about to expire, his fellow-slaves kiss him, and wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy enter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES, the most Easterly of all the Caribbees, is situated in 59 deg. W. Lon. and 13 deg. N. Lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most savage and destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beasts of pasture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortune in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support; and they found that cotton and Indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, together with the storm between the king and parliament which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves into this island. And what is extremely remarkable, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its first settlement, that in 1650 it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian slaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they seized upon all those unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery. A practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcilable to us ever since. They had begun a little before this to culti-

vate sugar, which soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of slaves therefore was still augmented: and in 1676 it is supposed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000 make 150,000 on this small spot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships, one with another, of 150 tuns, in their trade. Their annual exports in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, was above 350,000*l.* and their circulating cash at home was 200,000*l.* Such was the increase of population, trade, and wealth, in the course of 50 years. But since that time this island has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to our own establishments in the neighbouring isles. Their numbers at present are said to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 slaves. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor resides, whose employment is said to be worth 5000*l.* per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by Colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague.

St CHRISTOPHER's, commonly called by the sailors *St Kitt's*, is situated in 62 deg. W. Lon. and 17 deg. N. Lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is 20 miles long, and 7 broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. This nation, however, abandoned it as unworthy of their attention; and in 1626 it was settled by the French and English conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much sugar as Barbadoes, and sometimes quite as much. It is computed that this island contains 6000 whites and 36,000 negroes.

ANTIGUA. Situated in 61 deg. W. Lon. and 17 deg. N. Lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, has now got the start of the rest. It has one of the best harbours in the West-Indies, and is supposed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 slaves.

NEVIS AND MONTserrat. Two small islands, lying between St Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and are said each to contain 5000 whites and 10,000 slaves. The soil in these four islands is pretty much alike, light, and sandy, but notwithstanding fertile in an high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar-cane.

BARBUDA. Situated in 18 deg. N. Lat. 35 miles North of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions

visions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA. Situated in 19 deg. N. Lat. 60 miles North-West of St Christopher's, is about 30 miles long and 10 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA. Situated in 16 deg. N. Lat. and in 62 W. Lon. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth, it got its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than sugar, but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West-Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water.

ST VINCENT. Situated in 13 deg. N. Lat. and in 61 deg. W. Lon. 50 miles North-West of Barbadoes, 30 miles South of St Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the raising of sugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is less cultivated than formerly throughout the West-Indies. It is at present chiefly inhabited by the Caribbeans, and many fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands, who are now numerous, and have many villages, where they are said to live well.

GRENADA AND THE GRENADINES. Grenada is situated in 12 deg. North Lat. and in 62 deg. West Lon. about 30 leagues South-West of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance North of New-Andalusia, or the Spanish main. This island is said to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved, that the soil of this island is extremely proper for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flourishing a colony as any of the West-Indies, of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill in the middle of the island supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for shipping; and it has the happiness of not being subject to hurricanes. Its chief port, called St George's, has a sandy bottom, and is so capacious and safe, that 1000 vessels from 3 to 400 ton may ride secure from storms; and 100 ships of the greatest burden may be moored in its harbour.

TOBAGO. The most Southerly of all the British islands or settlements in America (except Falkland islands in the South-seas) is situated in 11 deg. North Lat. 120 miles South of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish main. This island is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal

fatal to the other West-India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West-Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch,) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kinds of shipping.

NEWFOUNDLAND. It is situated to the East of the gulph of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. North Lat. and between 53 and 59 deg. West Lon. separated from Labrador or New-Britain by the straits of Belleisle, and from Canada by the bay of St. Lawrence, being 350 miles long and 200 broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. The cold is long continued and severe; and the Summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the soil, at least in those parts of the island with which we are acquainted, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by several good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. What at present it is chiefly valued for is the great fishery of cod carried on upon those shoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great-Britain and North-America, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery; on board of which, and on shore, to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 10,000 hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to so many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the royal navy. This fishery is computed to increase the national stock 300,000*l.* a-year in gold and silver, remitted to us for the cod we sell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod both on the great bank and on the lesser ones, which lye on the East and South-East of this island, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, New-Scotland, New-England, and the Isle of Cape-Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts.

CAPE-BRÉTON. This island, situated between Newfoundland and Nova-Scotia, is in length about 110 miles. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water.

St JOHN'S. Situated in the gulph of St. Lawrence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, has many fine rivers, and though lying near Cape-Breton and New-Scotland, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape-Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to 4000, submitted quietly to the British arms; and, to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages of New-Scotland; this being the place where they were encouraged to

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carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was stiled the Granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS. These received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard, and were called the Summer Islands, from Sir George Summers, who was ship-wrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated at a vast distance from any continent, in 32 degrees North Latitude, and in 65 degrees West Longitude. Their distance from the Land's End is computed near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there, expresses it, walled in with rocks. The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions is perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vines, the chief and only business of the inhabitants, who consist of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North-America and the West-Indies. These vessels are as remarkable for their swiftness, as the cedar of which they are built is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St George, which is the capital, is seated at the bottom of a haven in the island of the same name, and is defended by seven or eight forts, and 70 pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houses, a handsome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY'S OR BAHAMA ISLANDS. The Bahamas are situated to the South of Carolina, between 22 and 27 degrees North Latitude, and 73 and 81 degrees West Longitude. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the isle of Cuba; and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina: all are, however, absolutely uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles East of the Floridas. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulph of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe.

FALKLAND ISLANDS. They are situated near the streights of Magellan, at the utmost extremity of South-America. It has been generally believed, that the richest gold-mines in Chili are carefully concealed by the Indians, as well knowing that the discovery of them would only excite in the Spaniards a greater thirst for conquest and tyranny, and would render their own independence more precarious. King Charles II. of England considered the discovery of this coast of such consequence, that Sir John Narborough was purposely fitted out to survey the straits of Magellan, the neighbouring coast of Pa-

tagonia, and the Spanish ports in that frontier; with directions, if possible, to procure some intercourse with the Chilian Indians, who are generally at war, or at least on ill terms with the Spaniards; and to establish a commerce and a lasting correspondence with them. Though Sir John, through accidental causes, failed in this attempt, which, in appearance, promised so many advantages to this nation, his transactions upon that coast, besides the many valuable improvements he furnished to geography and navigation, are rather an encouragement for further trials of this kind, than any objection against them. It appears by the precautions and fears of the Spaniards, that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the scheme he was sent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehension of its consequences. It is said that his majesty King Charles was so far prepossessed with the belief of the emoluments which might redound to the public from this expedition, and was so eager to be informed of the event of it, that, having intelligence of Sir John Narborough's passing the Downs, on his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himself in his barge to Gravesend to meet him.

Falkland Islands were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The present English name, Falkland, was probably given them by Captain Strong, in 1689, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps.

In the year 1764, the late Lord Egmont, then first lord of the admiralty, revived the scheme of a settlement in the South-seas, and Commodore Byron was sent to take possession of Falkland Islands in the name of his Britannic Majesty, and in his journal represents them as a valuable acquisition. On the other hand, they are represented by Captain McBride, who in 1766 succeeded that gentleman, as the outcasts of nature, "We found, says he, a mass of islands and broken lands, of which the soil was nothing but a bog, with no better prospect than that of barren mountains, beaten by storms almost perpetual. Yet this is Summer, and if the winds of Winter hold their natural proportion, those who lye but two cables length from the shore must pass weeks without having any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr Byron's people, and the fire-tree, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, sheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increase as in other places. Geese, of a filthy taste, snipes, foxes, sea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and in the Summer months, wild salary, and sorrel, are the natural luxuries of these islands.

Notwithstanding all these disadvantages, however, a British settlement was formed here, but the Spaniards seized it in 1770. This violence was disavowed by the Spanish ambassador, and some concessions made on the occasion. However the British court thought proper to relinquish the settlement in order to avoid giving umbrage to Spain.

Spanish

SPANISH DOMINIONS

IN

NORTH AMERICA.

NEW MEXICO *including* CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 2000 } between { 94 and 126 West Longitude.
 Breadth 1600 } { 23 and 43 North Latitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by unknown lands on the North; by Louisiana, on the East; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific ocean, on the South; and by the same ocean, on the West.

Divisions.

Subdivisions.

Chief towns.

North-East division,	{ New Mexico } { SANTA FE, West Lon. 104.
	{ Proper, } { North Lat. 36.
South-East division,	{ Apacheira, } { St Antonio.
South division,	{ Sonora, } { Tuape.
West division,	{ California, } { St Juan.
	{ Peninsula, }

Soil and Climate.] These countries lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, they experience great heats in the Summer, particularly towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, and in Winter even cold.

Face and Produce of the Country.] The natural history of these countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of the matter, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who here at least still preserve their independence, they are jealous of discovering the natural advantages of these countries, which might be an inducement to the other nations of Europe to form settlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful

and pleasant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold mines in those countries, nothing positive can be asserted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions, to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose-leaves, candies and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular natural production. In the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm, and clear as crystal, which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

Inhabitants, History, Government, Religion, and Commerce.] The Spanish settlements are here comparatively weak; though they are increasing every day in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilized life, to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator Sir Francis Drake took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 2000	between { 82 and 110 West Longitude. 8 and 30 North Latitude.
Breadth 600	

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by New Mexico, or Grenada, on the North; by the gulph of Mexico, on the North-East; by Terra Firma, on the South-East; and by the Pacific ocean, on the South-West, containing three audiences, viz.

Audiences.	Chief towns.
1. Galicia or Guadalajara,	Guadalajara.
2. Mexico Proper,	Mexico, { W. Lon. 102-35. N. Lat. 20.
3. Guatemala,	Acapulco. Vera Cruz. Guatemala.

Baye.

Bays.] On the North-sea are the gulphs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific ocean, or South sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

Capes.] These are Cape Sardo, Cape St Martin, Cape Cornducto, Cape Catoche, Cape Honduras, Cape Cameron, and Cape Gracias Dios, in the North-sea.

Cape Marques, Cape Spirito-Sancto, Cape Corientes, Cape Galero, Cape Blanco, Cape Burica, Cape Pruceos, and Cape Mala, in the South-sea.

Winds.] In the gulph of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, there are strong North winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a distance from land within the tropics. Near the coast, in the South-sea, they have their periodical winds, viz. Monsoons, and sea and land-breezes, as in Asia.

Soil and Climate.] Mexico, lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excessively hot, and on the Eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, it is likewise extremely unwholsome. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the Western side the land is not so low as on the Eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The soil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuse any sort of grain were the industry of the inhabitants to correspond with their natural advantages.

Produce.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa nuts, are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. A prodigious quantity of sugar is also produced, especially towards the gulph of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatemala, so that here are more sugar-mills than in any other part of Spanish America. But what is considered as the chief glory of this country, and what first induced the Spaniards to form settlements upon it, are the mines of gold and silver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Grenada, confining upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in several parts, but in none so much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the most barren and mountainous parts of the country. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances, mixed with the precious metals, it is broke into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which cling to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a stronger attraction for silver, than the other substances which are united with it in the ore, by means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then, by straining and evaporation,

evaporation, they are disunited from the mercury itself. Of the gold and silver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been said. Those who have inquired most into this subject compute the revenues of Mexico at 24 millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver. The other articles next in importance to gold and silver are the cochineal and cocoa. After much dispute concerning the nature of the former, it seems at last agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called *Opuntia*, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value; which consists in dying all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity, to answer the purposes of dying. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next considerable article in the natural history and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling size, which bears a pod about the size and shape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the internal consumption, as well as external call for it, that a small garden of cocoas is said to produce to the owner, 20,000 crowns a-year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholesome, nutritious, and suitable to the climate. This country likewise produces silk, but not in such abundance as to make any remarkable part of their exports. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightness is the common wear of the inhabitants.

Population, Inhabitants, Government, and Manners.] The present inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are Creoles, i. e. natives of Spanish America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a still more considerable portion of pride; for they consider themselves as entitled to every high distinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The Creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended, without that courage, firmness, and patience, which makes the praise-worthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greatest part of their lives to loitering and inactive pleasures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitution their whole business is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of consequence are not at all distinguished for their chastity or domestic virtues. The Indians, who notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppression and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miserable race of mortals. The blacks here, like all those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and well adapted for the gross slavery they endure.

Such

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America. The civil government is administered by tribunals called Audiencias, which bear a resemblance to the parliaments in France. In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power which his Catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration. For no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that priests, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. It is impossible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to ecclesiastics in any part of the world. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable that the church should enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom; it is more surprising that it has not a half.

Commerce, Cities, and Shipping.] The trade of Mexico consists of three great branches, which extend over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La-Vera-Cruz, situated on the gulph of Mexico or North-sea; with the East-Indies, by Acapulco on the South-sea, and by South-America, by the same port. These two sea-ports, Vera-Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well situated for the commercial purposes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth over all the whole world. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and 14 large merchant ships, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La-Vera-Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Sometimes in May they are ready to depart. From La-Vera-Cruz, they sail to the Havannah, in the isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Cartagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America and the East-Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, which make the only communication

nication between the Philippines, and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of these ships, (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewise carries goods,) consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quick-silver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the galleons cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver, and such European goods as have been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the Flota, so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galeon.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, or CASTILLA DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1400 }	between	{ 60 and 82 West Longitude.
Breadth 700 }		{ The equator and 12 North Latitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by the North sea (part of the Atlantic ocean) on the North; by the same sea, and Surinam, on the East; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the South; and the Pacific ocean and New Spain, on the West.

Divisions.

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Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
The North division contains the Provinces of,	1. Terra-firma Proper, or Darien,	Porto-Bello. PANAMA, W. Lon. 81-52. N. Lat. 8-50.
	2. Carthagena,	Carthagena.
	3. St Martha,	St Martha.
	4. Rio-de-la-Hacha,	Rio-de-la-Hacha.
	5. Venezuela,	Venezuela.
	6. Comana,	Comana.
	7. New Andalusia, or Paria,	St Thomas.
The South division contains the Provinces of,	1. New Granada,	Santa Fe de Bagota.
	2. Popayan,	Popayan.

Bays, Capes, &c.] The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra-firma Proper, joins North and South-America. A line drawn from Porto-Bello in the North to Panama in the South-sea, or rather a little West of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South-America, and here the Isthmus or Neck of land is only sixty miles over.

The principal bays in Terra-firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St Michael's in the South-sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulph of Darien, Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulph of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulph of Trieste, the bay of Guaira, the bay of Curiaco, and the gulph of Paria, or Andalusia, in the North-sea.

The chief capes are, Samblas Point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart Point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoo, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points; and Cape Nassau: all on the North shore of Terra-firma.

Climate.] The climate here, particularly in the Northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual at Carthagena; the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto-Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

Soil and Produce.] The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South-America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriance of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam-tree. The manzanillo

nillo tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The malignity of this tree is such, that if a person only sleeps under it, he finds his body all swelled, and racked with the severest tortures. The beasts from instinct always avoid it. The *Habella de Carthagena* is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold in this country, which are now in a great measure exhausted. The silver, iron, and copper mines, have been since opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.

Animals.] Among those peculiar to this country the most remarkable is the Sloth; or, as it is called by way of derision, the *Swift-Peter*. It bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but is of a most wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its skin all over corrugated. He stands in no need of either chain or hutch, never stirring unless compelled by hunger; and he is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such a plaintive, and at the same time so disagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the first hostile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with disgusting howlings, so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruit on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with a world of uneasiness, moving, and crying, and stopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himself in a bunch, and with a shriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in these countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in a company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at least they chatter, and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him: they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes; but where two or three people are together they usually scamper away.

Natives.] Besides the Indians in this country, there is another species of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions too are more soft and effeminate; but what principally distinguishes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moon-light, and from which they are therefore called moon-eyed Indians.

Inhabitants,

Inhabitants, Commerce, and Chief Towns.] The original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater share of the Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the Mulattoes, which is well known. Next are the Tercerones, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites arise the Quaterones, who, though still nearer the former, are disgraced with a tint of negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites are the Quinterones, which is very remarkable are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; and besides these, there are a thousand others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto-Bello; which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America; and each containing several thousand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandize of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for these, and have arrived at wonderful dexterity at this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

P E R U.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 1800 } between { The equator and 25 South Latitude.
Breadth 500 } { 60 and 81 West Longitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by Terra Firma, on the North; by the mountains, or Cordelciras des Andes, East; by Chili, South; and by the Pacific ocean, West.

Division.

Province.

Chief towns.

The North division, { Quito, } { Quito.
Payta.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The Middle division,	{ Lima, or Los Reyes, }	{ LIMA, 77-30. W. Lon. 12-15. S. Lat. Cusco, and Callao.
The South division,	{ Los Charcos, . . }	{ Potosi. Porco.

Seas, Bays, and Harbours.] The only sea which borders on Peru is the Pacific ocean, or South-sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Cosma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao, the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

Rivers.] There is a river whose waters are as red as blood. The rivers Granada, or Cagdalena, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plata, rise in the Andes.

A great many other rivers rise in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. Lat.

There are some waters which, in their course, turn into stone; and fountains of liquid matter; called coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by the seamen for the same purpose.

Soil and Climate.] Though Peru lyes within the torrid zone, yet, having on one side the South-sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so stifled with heat as the other tropical countries. The sky too, which is generally cloudy, shields them from the direct rays of the sun; but what is extremely singular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew, which falls regularly every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. Along the sea-coast Peru is generally a dry barren sand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

Animal, Vegetable, and Mineral Productions.] There are many gold mines in the Northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are constantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns shift with the mines. That of Potosi, when the silver there was found at the easiest expence, (for now having gone so deep, it is not so easily brought up) contained 90,000 souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one. The Northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no less remarkable for its fineness than for the animals on which it grows; these they call lamas and vicunnas. The lama has a small head, in some measure resembling that of a horse and sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which enflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with

with a burden of 60 or 70 lb. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is smaller and swifter than the lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the vicunna too is found the Bezoar stones, formerly regarded as a specific against poisons. The next great article in their produce and commerce is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jesuits bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it is about the size of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit resembling the almond. But it is only the bark which has those excellent qualities which renders it so useful in intermitting fevers, and other disorders, to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Arica, a district in the Southern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewise the only part of Spanish America which produces quick-silver, an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, where it is found in a whitish mass resembling brick ill burned. This substance is volatilised by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

Manufactures, Trade, and Cities.] The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire; its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate and want of rain rendering stone houses unnecessary; and besides, it is found that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city: When the Viceroy, the Duke de-la-Plata, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting to seventeen millions sterling. The merchants of this city may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts and as factors for others. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and the fertility of the climate

mate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or perfect, not more than one of 3000 inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved. Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a distance from the sea, it has been long on the decline; but is still a very considerable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also both here and in Quito a particular taste for painting, and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed all over South-America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is like Cusco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Government.] It has been guessed by some writers, that in all Spanish America, there are about three millions of Spaniards and Creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any respect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole of the Spanish dominions. Pride and laziness are the two predominant passions. It is agreed on by the most authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other descendants of the Spaniards, according to the above distinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Castilian could not think of but with detestation. It is in Lima that the Viceroy resides, whose authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has been lately detached from it. The Viceroy is as absolute as the King of Spain, but as his territories are so extensive, it is necessary that he should part with a share of his authority to the several audiences or courts established over the kingdom. There is a treasury-court established at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the King of Spain.

CHILL.

C H I L I.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 1200 }	between { 25 and 45 S. Latitude.
Breadth 500 }	{ 65 and 85 W. Longitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by Peru, on the North; by La Plata, on the East; by Patagonia, on the South; and by the Pacific ocean, on the West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
On the West side of the Andes,	{ Chili Proper, . . }	{ St Jago, W. Lon. 77. S. Lat. 34. Baldivia. Imperial.
On the East side of the Andes,	{ Cuyo, or Cutio, }	{ St John de Frontieræ.

Lakes.] The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which, they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

Bays, Seas, and Harbours.] The only sea that borders upon Chili is that of the Pacific ocean on the West.

The principal bays or harbours are Copiapo, Coquimbo, Góvoadore, Valpariso, Iata, Conception, Sancta Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewers-haven, and Castro.

Climate, Soil, and Produce.] These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of nature; for here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru, and they have gold almost in every river.

Inhabitants.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation

vation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition, with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000, and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes are not supposed to be thrice that number.

Commerce.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn sufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raised in no other part of the South-seas, hides, tallow, and salted provisions; and receive in return the commodities of Europe and the East-Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY, or LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 1500 } Breadth 1000 }	between { 12 and 37 South Latitude. 50 and 75 West Longitude.

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by Amazonia, on the North; by Brazil, East; by Patagonia, on the South; and by Peru and Chili, West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
East division contains,	{ Paraguay, . . }	{ Assumption.
	{ Parana, . . . }	{ St Anne.
	{ Guaira, . . . }	{ Ciudad Real.
	{ Uragua, . . . }	{ Los Reyes.
South division,	{ Tucuman, . . }	{ St Jago.
	{ Rio-de-la-Plata, }	{ BUENOS AYRES, W. Lon. 57-54. S. Lat. 34-35.

Bays and Lakes.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and cape St Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which is 100 miles long.

Rivers.] Besides an infinite number of small rivers, Paraguay is watered by three principal ones, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio-de-la-Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with

with a slime, that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

Air, Soil, and Produce.] The principal province in this vast tract of which we have any knowledge is that which is called Rio-de-la-Plata, towards the mouth of the abovementioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, interrupted by not the least hill for several hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco; and the valuable herb, called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that it is said the hides of beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcase being in a manner given into the bargain. A horse some time ago might be bought for a dollar, and the usual price of a beast, chosen out of a herd of 2 or 300, was only four rials. But contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

First Settlement, chief City, and Commerce.] The Spaniards first discovered this country, by sailing up the river La Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the South side of the river, fifty leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South-America, and the only place of traffic to the Southward of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other ports of Spanish America; two, or at most three, register ships, make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar and hides. Those who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose, in such parts of Brazil as lye near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are much the same with those of the rest of the Spanish colonies in South America.

We cannot quit this country without saying something of that extraordinary species of commonwealth, which the Jesuits have erected in the interior parts, and of which these crafty priests have endeavoured to keep all strangers in the dark.

About the middle of last century those fathers represented to the court of Spain, that their want of success in their missions was owing to the scandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour caused in the Indians, wherever they came. They insinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his Catholic Majesty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonstrance met with success: an uncontrouled liberty was given

to the Jesuits within the limits marked out to them; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without licence from the fathers. They on their part agreed, to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about fifty wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle; and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure, which has amazed the world, and added so much power, at the same time that it has brought on so much envy and jealousy, to their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and with such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most savage nations; fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government, who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion, and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

The Jesuits left nothing undone that could conduce to their remaining in this subjection, or that could tend to increase their number to the degrees requisite for a well ordered and potent society; and it is said that above 340,000 families, several years ago, were subject to the Jesuits, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint: That the Indians were instructed in the military art with the most exact discipline, and could raise 60,000 men well armed: That they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exercised manufactures; some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of these missions, except their contentment under it. Some writers, however, have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity, accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause even the magistrates, who are always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction, within their jurisdictions, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possess large property, all manufactures are theirs, the natural produce of the country is brought to them, and the treasures annually remitted to the Superior of the order seem to evince that zeal for religion is not the only motive of their forming these missions. The fathers will not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestozos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. Some years ago, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. And we were informed by the authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but, notwithstanding the exactness

exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with a considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were sent to quell them.

SPANISH ISLANDS in AMERICA.

CUBA. This island is situated between 19 and 23 degrees N. Lat. and between 74 and 87 degrees West Longitude, 100 miles to the South of Cape Florida, and 75 North of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills run through the middle of the island from East to West, but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the West-Indies, particularly ginger, long-pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastic, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar, but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the same cause that this large island does not produce, including all its commodities, so much for exportation as our small island of Antigua.

There are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, by the courage and perseverance of the English troops in the last war, but restored in the 63d article of the treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town 30 miles East of the Havannah.

It is situated between the 17th and 21st degree North Latitude, and the 67th and 74th of West Longitude, lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. The face of the country presents an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and rivers, and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks, they discovered formerly silver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The North-West parts, which are in the possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance. This indeed is the best

and most fruitful part, of the most fertile island in the West-Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all the new world, built by Europeans, is St Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole island is sometimes named, especially by the French. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, creoles, mulattoes, mulattoes, and negroes.

The French towns are, Cape St Francois, the capital, which is neither walled nor palled in. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of size, is a good port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government in that island. They have two other towns considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and port Louis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above-mentioned places, are not less in value than 1,200,000*l*. They likewise carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spanish dollars.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between 64 and 67 degrees West Longitude, and in 18 degrees North Latitude, lying between Hispaniola and St Christophers, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers, but the island is unhealthy in the rainy seasons.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands on a little island on the North side of the main island, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the Earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the King of Spain's subjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS. Situated at the East end of Porto Rico, are extremely small.

TRINIDAD. Situated between 59 and 62 degrees West Longitude, and 10 degrees North Latitude, lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish main, from which it is separated by the streights of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthy, but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA. Situated in 64 degrees West Longitude, and in

in 11 North Latitude, separated from the coast of New Andalusia, in Terra-Firma, by a strait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast, which is now discontinued.

CHILOE, on the coast of Chili, has a governor and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES. Lying in 83 degrees West Longitude, and 33 South Latitude, 300 miles West of Chili, is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being discovered, unless when, as is generally the case, their arrival in the South-seas, and their motions have been made known to the Spaniards by the Portuguese. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. One Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by Captain Woods Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgot his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goat-skins, would drink nothing but water, and it was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught, thirty years after, by Lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect and majestic beards, discovered strong symptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He put his papers into the hands of Daniel De-Foe, to prepare them for publication; but that industrious gentleman, by the help of these papers, and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again, after defrauding him, by this piece of craft, of the benefits he was so justly entitled to hope from them.

The other islands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago isles, situated 400 miles West of Peru, under the equator; and those in the bay of Panama, called the King's, or Pearl Islands.

PORTUGUEZE

PORTUGUEZE AMERICA,

C O N T A I N I N G

B R A Z I L.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Degrees.

Length 2500 }	between {	The equator and 35 S. Latitude. 35 and 60 West Longitude.
Breadth 700 }		

Boundaries.] **B**OUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic ocean, on the North; by the same ocean, on the East; by the mouth of the river Plata, on the South; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of the Amazons, on the West.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South-seas, viz. Fernando, St Barbara, and St Catharine's.

Seas, Bays, Harbours, and Capes.] The Atlantic ocean washes the coast of Brazil on the North-East and East, forming several fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Panambuco, All-Saints, Porto-Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St Vincent, the harbour of St Gabriel, and the port of St Salvador, on the North shore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St Augustine, Cape Trio, and Cape St Mary, the most Southerly promontory of Brazil.

Face of the Country, Air, Climate, and Rivers.] The name of Brazil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the Northward of Brazil, which lyes almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the Southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, it enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, refreshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceeding pleasant, it being interpersed with meadows and woods, but on the West, far within land, are mountains from whence

issue

issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata, others running across the country from East to West till they fall into the Atlantic ocean.

Soil and Produce.] In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our Muscovado, as we call our unrefined sugar. Also tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of copaibo, Brazil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered; these with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in consequence, Brazil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Customs.] They are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and dissembling; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of most Southern climates, they are much more fond of shew, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammock, called Serpentine, which are borne on the negroes shoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains; so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down or sit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtains aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets: for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them make use of a strong well made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end and pointed below with iron: this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed on two of these, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarce any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

Trade and Chief Towns.] Rio de Janeiro, the residence of the Viceroy, and by some reckoned the capital of the Brazils, is a rich and populous city, standing about two leagues from the sea, on a bay formed by the river of the same name. It is sometimes called St Sebastian from the name of its citadel. It has the advantage of an excellent port, which is now more resorted to than any other in Brazil, on account of the gold and diamonds which are found in the mountains of this and the neighbouring province.

St Salvador, or, as it is sometimes called, the city of Bahia, is situated on the bay of All-Saints, and has a commodious harbour. It is built upon a high steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake, forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly, so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. This situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature, and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in the Brazils, and was formerly the residence of the viceroy. A considerable trade is carried on in this city; the streets are crowded with negroes of both sexes, quite naked, except a piece of cloth wrapped round their middles. There are also shops, and other public places, where these poor creatures stand for sale, in the same manner as the cattle in our markets. The trade of the Brazils is at present not only very great, but increases yearly; and is undoubtedly one of the richest, most flourishing, and most growing establishments of any in America.

Their exports of sugar, within 50 years, is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as formerly in our American colonies. The Northern and Southern parts of Brazil abound with horned cattle; these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than 20,000 are sent annually to Europe.

The Portuguese were a considerable time possessed of Brazil before they discovered the treasures of gold and diamonds which have since made it so considerable. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions sterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

The chief commodities the European ships carry thither in return are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal; they consist of the woollen goods, of all kinds, from England, France and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt fish, beef, flour, and cheese. Oil they have from Spain; wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal.

History and Government.] This country was first discovered by Americus Vesputio, in 1498, but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the Bay of All-Saints, and founded the city of St Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South-America as belonging to them. However, the affair was made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when Don Sebastian, the King of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition

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tion against the Moors in Africa, and by that event the Portuguese lost their liberty, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East-Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brazil, where they took seven of the Captainships or provinces; and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. They were, however, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brazil; but their West-India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tuns of gold to relinquish their interest in that country; which was accepted, and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brazil from that time till about the end of 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress called St. Sacramento; but by the treaty of peace it was restored.

The French, from being one of the greatest European powers in North-America, and to the British colonies, a very dangerous neighbour and rival, have now lost all footing there, but on the Southern continent they have still a settlement, which is called Cayenne, or Equinoctial France, and is situated between the equator and fifth degree of North Latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of West Longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean, East; by Amazonia, South; and by Guiana, West. The chief Town is Caen.

All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West-India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The island is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, they have here some settlements, which raise sugar and coffee.

FRENCH AMERICAN ISLANDS.

MARTINICO. SITUATED between 14 and 16 deg. of N. Lat. and in 61 deg. W. Lon. lying about 40 leagues N. W. of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, upon every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar,

cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West-India Islands, the principal commodity, of which they export a considerable quantity annually. Martinico is the residence of the governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious; and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to the English. However, in the last war, this island was added to the British empire, but restored at the treaty of peace.

GUADALUPE. Situated in 16 deg. North Lat. and in 62 West Lon. about 30 leagues North of Martinico, and almost as much South of Antigua; being 45 miles long and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of ginger almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759 it was reduced by the British arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

ST LUCIA. Situated in 14 deg. North Lat. and in 61 deg. West Lon. 80 miles North-West of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St Lucia. The English first settled on this island in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island, together with Dominica and St Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the late war broke out, began to settle these islands, which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers, and well situated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain restrictions.

ST BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, and MARIGALANTE, are three small islands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St Christopher's, and are of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our West-India trade.

DUTCH AMERICA.

Containing **SURINAM**, on the Continent of
SOUTH-AMERICA.

THIS country was once in the possession of England, but of no great value whilst we had it, and was therefore ceded to the Dutch

Dutch in exchange for New-York; with two or three small and barren islands in the North-sea, not far from the Spanish Main.

Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, is situated between 5 and 7 deg. North Lat. extending 100 miles along the coast from the mouth of the river Oronoque, North to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, South. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholesome; and a considerable part of the coast is low and covered with water. The chief settlement is at Parimaribo, a large and populous town, built on the river Surinam; and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. The colony is now in the most flourishing situation, not only with Europe, but with the West-India islands. Their chief trade consists in sugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dying drugs.

DUTCH ISLANDS in AMERICA.

ST EUSTATIA. **S**ITUATED three leagues North-West of St Christopher's, is only a mountain about 29 miles in compass, rising out of the sea like a pyramid, and almost round. But, though so small and inconveniently laid out by nature, it was said to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes, before the present rupture with Holland; since which time it has fallen into the hands of the English. The sides of the mountain are laid out in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade. Its situation renders it the strongest of all the West-India islands, there being but one good landing-place, which may be easily defended by a few men; and the haven is commanded by a strong fort.

CURASSOU. Situated in 12 degrees North Latitude, 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long and 10 broad. The island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America: yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and by far the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West-Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West-India company alone: at present, such ships as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences; the company, however, reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

The other islands, **BONAIRE** and **ARUBA**, are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to **Curassou**, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The small islands of **Saba** and **St Martin's**, situated at no great distance from **St Eustatia**, hardly deserve to be mentioned; they are both now, however, in possession of the English.

DANISH ISLANDS in AMERICA.

ST THOMAS. SITUATED in 64 degrees West Longitude, and 18 North Latitude, is about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

ST CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ. Another small and unhealthy island, lyes about five leagues East of **St Thomas**, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West-India company, were ill managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but the late king of Denmark bought up the company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of **St Thomas** has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of 3000 hogheads of sugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the West-India commodity in tolerable plenty. In time of war privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish Main, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandize. As for **Santa Cruz**, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to settle fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of great wealth, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement to do so.

GENERAL HISTORY of AMERICA,

From its first discovery, to the present time.

THIS vast continent was entirely unknown to the European, and all other nations in the world, till the year 1492, when it was discovered by **Christopher Columbus**, a native of **Genoa**. This man, having some how or other obtained a more just notion of the figure

of the earth than most of his contemporaries, projected a scheme of sailing to the East-Indies by directing his course Westward. The reason he had for so strange a project was indeed the errors in the maps which were made of those Eastern countries at that time; for by them the East-Indies were placed so very far to the Eastward, that it appeared to Columbus the navigation must go a great deal more than half round the globe before they could come at any part of them. In consequence of this supposition, the thought was very rational, that it behoved to be a much shorter, and less dangerous voyage to sail Westward, as they behoved to fall in with the Eastern parts of Asia before they had sailed round half the circumference of the globe; as no part of the world can be distant from another more than half this circumference, provided the shortest way to it is taken. But how Columbus, at that time, when it was reckoned a mortal heresy to say that the earth was round, came to have notions so different from the common, and not only to imagine that the earth was spherical, but that its circumference did not extend to a certain space, we are not certainly informed. Be this, however, as it will, Columbus was willing that his own country should reap the benefits of his superior knowledge in this respect: and therefore he communicated his new scheme to the court of Genoa, who rejected it as an absurdity. He then applied successively to the courts of France, Britain, and Portugal; from all of which he met with a reception of the same kind; and had the mortification to find, that his own superiority of knowledge to the rest of mankind only served to make him their laughing-stock. At last he applied to Spain, where, after eight years attendance, perhaps the curiosity natural to her sex induced Queen Isabella to raise money on her jewels, in order to defray the expense of his expedition.

In 1492 then Columbus set sail from Spain, with three ships, in search of countries hitherto undiscovered, and which almost every one believed to exist only in imagination. His sailors were with great difficulty kept in subjection; but being kept in hopes of land, sometimes by great flights of birds, and at others, by observing quantities of weeds floating in the sea, they were kept from breaking out into open mutiny, till the discovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to their fears. In this voyage the variation of the compass was first discovered, which occasioned such an alarm among Columbus's sailors, that they were with difficulty prevented from throwing him overboard.

Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands; but finding nothing there of consequence, he steered Southward, where he discovered the island of Hispaniola, which promising considerable quantities of gold, he therefore proposed to make the centre of his discoveries; and having left some of his companions, as the basis of a new colony, he returned to Spain.

On his return, he found no difficulty in procuring necessaries for a second voyage. A fleet of 17 sail was immediately fitted out, and 1500 persons, some of them of high rank, prepared to accompany Columbus, now when they hoped to share his good fortune. In this second voyage he discovered most of the West-India islands; and in a third, he discovered the continent of South-America, sailing up the

the river Oronoco. After having thus discovered the continent, and made settlements in the islands of America, the malice of his enemies prevailed so far against him, that he was sent to Europe in irons. His innocence, however, got the better of their calumnies, and this great man died in peace at Valladolid in 1506.

The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola rendered themselves as infamous by their cruelties as Columbus had been famous for his virtues. These islands contained mines of gold; the Indians only knew where they were placed, and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. In a few days they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de la Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer into the thick of the forests, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-shot, or surprized and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only visited the continent; but conjecturing that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest, Fernando Cortez was dispatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horses, and a small number of field pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposed and actually did subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America: this was the Empire of Mexico; rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians, passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame in arms struck terror into the neighbouring nations, and extended over one half the globe. This empire had subsisted for ages: its inhabitants were a polished and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whose wisdom is still admired in this particular, that the year consisted nearly of 365 days. Their superiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry, it communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried thro' the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of stone; also its squares and market-places; the shops glittered with gold and silver; and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma; some erected on columns of jasper, and containing whatever was most rare, curious, or useful. Cortez, in his march, met with feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they spared no age or sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states on the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into their alliance. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and in his progress discovered a volcano of sulphur and salt-petre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress, without daring to oppose it, though he commanded 30 vassals, of whom each

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could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only whetted the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition was made to their entry into his capital. Cortez had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this Emperor, under which he suspected some plot for his destruction to be concealed; but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded; and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most frightful of all engines to the Americans. At last a circumstance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea to receive the necessary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a small garrison behind him at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action, that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the Emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him, though at the same time he alledged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it unless he returned along with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. Thus Montezuma, in the middle of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the inclination of his enemies. Cortez had now got into his hand an engine by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather a superstitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, maintained an easy sovereignty over Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect? Montezuma was the first to teach them more politeness. Was there a tumult, excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards? Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harrangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long while; but on one of these occasions, a stone from an unknown hand struck the Emperor on the temple, which in a few days occasioned his death. The Mexicans now elected a new prince, the famous Gatimozin, who from the beginning discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico. The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing

zing quantity of precious stones; a fifth part of which was distributed among the soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Gatzimozin and the Empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the King of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high priest, condemned to the same punishment, and making hideous cries, "Do you take me to lye on a bed of roses?" The high priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico; with which the Castille D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of the empire of Peru, which extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America which deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. This extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence, of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lueques, a priest, and a man of considerable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of low education. Pizarro, could neither read nor write. They sailed over into Spain, and without difficulty obtained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries.

Mango Capac, the founder of the Peruvian empire, having observed that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun, pretended to be descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this story, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction. A larger still he subdued by his arms; but both the force, and the deceit, he employed for the most laudable purposes, and there was no part of America where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of so mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great God the Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father Guaiana Capac had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this marriage was sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huescar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huescar as a prisoner in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Pe-

ruvian empire. Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called Barbarians. While he was engaged in conference therefore with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized the Emperor himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ransom. On this occasion, the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most magnificent temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he proposed, without releasing the Emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external shew of friendship between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice. When their interests therefore happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the Emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause might suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom was paid in without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice. It exceeded 1,500,000 l. sterling, and considering the value of money at that time, was prodigious; and the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and officers, each private soldier had above 2000 l. English money.

The immense ransom was only a farther reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, it is certain, that by his command Atabalipa was put to death. Upon the death of the Ynca, the principal nobility set up the full brother of Huascar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another, their battles accustomed the harmless people to blood; and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to total lethargy, that in the course of those quarrels among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening

sening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and, after many difficulties, made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea-coast to the Southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the Southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district; but the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation: he persuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him lay to the Southward of Cusco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in question.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice; and penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians now made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed to a great distance, they were well nigh successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned, to secure the grand object of their former labours. He raised the siege with great slaughter of the assailants; but having obtained possession of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprize, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of Christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. Let us retire, said they, from among them, let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This resolution was instantly put in practice; the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with success; but the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's
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life, and the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to make head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the richest empire in the world, was still urged on by his ambition to undertake new enterprises. The Southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter, the mountain of Potosi, composed of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only now remains. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country; but as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it.

The success of Columbus soon inspired the other European nations with a desire of making new discoveries. About the time of his third voyage the Portuguese discovered Brazil; Sebastian Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the North-East coasts, which now form the British Empire in America; and Americus Vesputius, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the Southern continent, and being a man of address, had the honour of giving his name to that quarter of the globe.

Before we enter upon the history of the British settlements in America, however, it will be proper to give some account of the original inhabitants of those provinces which are now inhabited by our own countrymen; as the customs of those Indians are so very unlike those of any other nation, that an account of them cannot fail to be entertaining.

The bodies of the Indians in general, where the rays of the sun are not too violent, are uncommonly straight and well proportioned. Their muscles are firm and strong; their bodies and heads flattish, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce, their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin is a reddish brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bears fat and paint. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of saying trifles agreeably is one of the most considerable, they never speak but when they have something important to observe; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with some meaning. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in greatest abundance. Cities, they have none. The different tribes or nations are extremely small, when compared with civilized societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are separated by a desert frontier, and hid in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with very little variation;

variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. In every society there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders: and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, because the idea of having a military leader was the first source of his superiority, and the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive: he is revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice, and one act of ill-judged violence will pull him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes indeed there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, influence, and authority. Among those persons business is conducted with the utmost simplicity. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose; here the business is discussed, and here those of the nation, distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger than refined, or rather softened nations, can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real, or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though chiefly of the military kind, and their music and dancing accompanies every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends are deemed enemies, they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friend, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting; and whom they adopt into their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men, who are disposed to go out to battle, give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token

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of their design to accompany him. The chief, who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which are generally as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which amongst some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelain, or large shell to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth, with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a considerable distance to receive those last tokens of friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprize; and indeed in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, are of small importance, because their enemies are no less acquainted with them. When they get out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals; but lye close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear, diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and also of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy may lye concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes, and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprized of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested, when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musquet-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves

themselves from the ground to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until one party is so much weakened, as to be incapable of farther resistance: But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirits of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. They trample and insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance, then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy and severe gloom to their own village, a messenger is sent to announce their arrival, and the women with frightful shrieks come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased, by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member; but if they have no occasion for him, or the resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where they commence their death song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. The enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he smokes like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they fear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching

them alternately ; they pull off his flesh mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours, and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard of torments, often falls into so profound a sleep that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty ; they stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily takes fire, but burns slowly ; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body ; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes ; and, lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires ; after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound ; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it ; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals, or boiling water, on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind, and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into a kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, act their parts, and even outdo the men in this scene of horror, while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake smoking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution there seems a contest between him and them which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmness and constancy almost above human : not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him ; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments ; he recounts his own exploits ; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death ; and though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out himself more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men ; and it is as rare for an Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for any European to suffer as an Indian.

When any one of the society dies, he is lamented by the whole ;

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and on this occasion a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order, and nothing is omitted that it may be celebrated with the utmost pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present, and to join in the solemnity. At this time all who have died since the last solemn occasion, (which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight among others) are taken out of their graves; those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases.

They bring the bodies into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead, during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in the tender condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. Then they are carried from the cabbins for the general re-interment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit; then their grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and over these with bark, on which they throw stones, wood, and earth. Then taking their last farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

Areskoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field, and according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strangely addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii or spirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they

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are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the disease, and in what way they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and, in almost every disease, direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is inclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

History of the British Settlements in A M E R I C A.

THE first discovery made by any of our countrymen was that already mentioned by Sebastian Cabot, a native of Bristol, who in 1498 discovered that part of North-America now known by the name of Hudson's Bay; and the Straits of Davis, from Capt. Hudson and Davis, who sailed afterwards to these places.

Between the years 1607 and 1611 Mr Hudson made four voyages to this part of the world; in the last of which his men forced him and eight more of their officers into a boat, and left them to starve in the bottom of the bay.

Sir Thomas Button pursued the discovery in 1612, and Capt. James, in 1631, in hopes of finding a North-West passage to China. Capt. Gilham failed to the bottom of the bay in 1667, and, at his return, his owners procured a patent for planting this country, anno 1670. The first English Governor that went thither was Charles Batley, Esq. who built a fort on Rupert river, calling it Charles-Fort, and soon after settled another factory at Nelson. In the year 1684, the chief English factory was at Albany, and a fort erected for its defence.

The French invaded our settlements, and took Forts Rupert and Albany in July 1686, though we were then at peace with France. In King William's war, anno 1693, the English recovered their settlements again.

During the war in Queen Anne's reign, the French reduced all our settlements except Albany, but were obliged to restore them at the peace of Utrecht, anno 1713; and the company have remained in possession of them ever since; and by the treaty they were to re-

store to Great Britain, the bay and freights of Hudson, with all the lands, seas, sea-coasts, rivers, and places, situated on the same bay and freights; (which comprehend all New Britain and British Canada) and it was agreed, that commissioners, on the part of Great Britain and France, should terminate, within the space of a year, the limits between the dominions of Great Britain and France on that side; which limits the subjects of Great Britain and France were not to pass over to each other by sea or land.

It is not with certainty known what Europeans first visited the country of Canada, the discovery being claimed by both Spaniards and French. However, no permanent settlement was made here till about the beginning of the 17th century; when the French having built some forts, and being frequently supplied with emigrants, they became able to support themselves and extend their views. As their settlements were the first to the Northward of what was then called New England, they gradually spread themselves round the bay of St Lawrence and along both sides of the river, usurped the country called Nova Scotia, built a town, called Port-Royal, in the bay of Fundy, and from thence, about the year 1680, supported the Indians of New England in their wars with the English; for which they were, in 1690, stripped of their possessions in the bay of Fundy by the people of New England, under the command of Sir William Phipps, their governor; who also twice attempted the reduction of Quebec, but failed by being too late in the season. However, during the wars of king William, the French and Indians gained many advantages over the English, having recovered Port-Royal and the other countries they had formerly usurped. In the wars of Queen Anne, Port-Royal was again re-taken, and called Annapolis; and an expedition was set on foot against Quebec. The fleet from Old England was under admiral Walker, with a body of troops under general Hill, who were to approach the place by the river of St Lawrence, while general Nicholson, with the New-England forces, were to attack Montreal, and so divide the French force. This expedition also failed; and the peace of Utrecht following soon after, the French relinquished Nova Scotia, the bay of Fundy, and other places.

Then they applied themselves to extend their settlements about the lakes, and meet those making about the Mississippi; and also built and fortified the town of Louisburg on the island of Cape Breton, which gave them the command of the gulph of St Lawrence, and greatly disturbed the New-England trade. This town was taken, in 1745, by the New-England-men, and restored to the French in 1748. It was finally taken in 1758; and, in the following year, the English army, under general Wolfe, having beat the French under Montcalm, in the neighbourhood of Quebec, where both generals fell, that town, and all its dependencies, fell to the English; and, by the treaty of 1763, was confirmed to them, and the French government thereby annihilated in North-America.

Revolutions and Memorable Events.

WHEN the Europeans first visited New England, they found it inhabited by twenty different nations or tribes, independent of each other, and commanded by their respective chiefs. Of these nations the most powerful was the Massachusetts, situated on or near Boston harbour. King James I. by letters patent dated the 10th of April, 1606, erected two companies, empowering them to send colonies to Virginia, as all the North-East coast of America was then called.

About the year 1619, some dissenters of the independent persuasion, who were uneasy at their being required to conform to the church of England, having purchased the Plymouth patent, and obtained another from king James to send colonies to North Virginia, now New England, embarked 150 men on board a ship, which sailed from Plymouth the 6th of September 1620, and arrived at Cape-Cod in New England on the 9th of November following, where they built a town, and called it by the name of New Plymouth; and Mr John Carver was elected their first governor.

The Indians were, at this time, too much engaged in wars among themselves, to give these strangers any disturbance; and Massasoit, prince of the Massachusetts nation, learning from one Quanto, an Indian who had been carried to England, what a powerful people the English were, made governor Carver a visit the following spring, and entered into an alliance, offensive and defensive, with the English, by whose assistance he hoped to make a conquest of the Narraganset nation, with which he was then at war. This prince also consented to acknowledge the king of England his sovereign, and made a cession of part of his country to the new planters. Several other Sachems, or Princes, also followed the example of Massasoit, and desired the protection of the English against their enemies, professing themselves subjects of king James.

Ships arriving every day almost with planters and provisions, the colony soon became well established, when differences arose among the planters upon account of religion. The independents, who were the most numerous, not allowing a toleration to any other sect or persuasion, several of the adventurers removed to other parts of the country, and others returned home, whereby the colony was so weakened, that, if the Indians had not been engaged in a civil war, the English would infallibly have been driven out of the country.

In the mean time, another set of adventurers, anno 1627, purchased a grant, of the Plymouth company, of all that part of New England which lyes between the river Merimac and Charles river; and, to strengthen their title to this country, procured a grant of it from King Charles, anno 1628, and nominated Mr Cradock their first governor.

Another set of adventurers planted New Hampshire, and others Providence and Rhode-Island, the last being chiefly quakers, driven

out of Massachusetts colony by the independents, who had long persecuted them, and actually hanged some of the quakers for not conforming to their sect.

Thus all the New England provinces were planted and well-peopled within the space of twenty years, reckoning from the arrival of the first colony at New Plymouth, during which time they were very little interrupted by the Indians; but the English colony of Connecticut beginning to erect fortresses, and extend their settlements to the Westward, without the leave of the natives, the Indians were alarmed, apprehending they should in time be dispossessed of their country, and be enslaved by these foreigners.

The Sachem Metacomb therefore (to whom the English gave the name of Philip) the son of Massasoit, who first entered into an alliance with the English, observing the danger his country was in, and that the English now no longer acted as allies, but tyrannized over his people, and had in a manner deprived him of his authority, dispatched messengers privately through all the tribes of the Indians, inviting them to take up arms in defence of their country, which they did, and succeeded in several engagements at first, but their Prince Philip being killed by a musket-shot, the English at length prevailed. Great numbers of the Indians were massacred, and others were driven out of their country, and joined the French in Canada, who promised them protection, and frequently assisted them in their invasion of the British settlements.

The province of New York, which was sold to the Dutch about the year 1608, by a private contract with captain Hudson, its discoverer, was, by the Dutch, called Nova Belgia. They cleared some parts, built some towns about the mouths of the rivers, and formed some settlements within land; and, about the year 1637, had spread themselves to the Northward of what is now called Jersey, and incroached on the lands which had been settled for some years by a colony of Swedes, who had built the towns of Christina, Elsingburg, and Gottenburg. But as this coast had been first discovered by Cabot for king Henry VII. it was reclaimed by king Charles II.; who, in the year 1664, sent a force which took possession of it for the Duke of York, to whom it had been granted by the king, his brother; and therefore the country was called New York. The part possessed by the Swedes was granted by the Duke of York to Lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret, whose families being of the Isle of Jersey, they called it New Jersey; one having the East part, and the other the West part. Such of the Swedes and Dutch as chose to stay, and become subjects to England, and tenants to the proprietors, were permitted to enjoy the fruits of their labour; and the Dutch who departed had the liberty of retiring to Surinam, which country the English had ceded to the Dutch by way of exchange. On the Duke of York's accession to the throne, New York fell to the crown, and became a royal government. And in 1702 the proprietors of the Jerseys surrendering the country to the queen, it became also a royal government.

The Duke of York afterwards parcelled out these countries to under-proprietors, among whom William Penn, son of Sir William Penn, admiral in the Dutch wars, was one.

All the rest of the underproprietors, some time after, surrendered their charters to the crown, whereby New-York and the Jerseys became royal governments; but Penn retained that part of the country which had been granted to him. And king Charles II. made him another grant, in 1680, of the rest of that country, which now constitutes the rest of Pennsylvania, in consideration of a debt due to his father, the admiral, from the government. Penn, the son, afterwards united the countries he possessed by both grants, into one, giving them the name of Pennsylvania, and began to plant them in the year 1681. The Dutch and Swedish inhabitants choosing still to reside in this country, as they did in New-York and the Jerseys, they and their descendents enjoy the same privileges as the rest of his majesty's subjects in these plantations do, and are now in a manner the same people with the English, speaking their language, and governed by their laws and customs.

Mr Penn, however, notwithstanding the grants made him by the crown and the Duke of York, did not esteem himself the real proprietor of the lands granted him, until he had given the Indians a valuable consideration (or what they esteemed such) for their country: he therefore assembled their Sachems or Princes, and purchased countries of a very large extent of them, for a very moderate price, as they made scarce any other use of their country than hunt in it. He paid them for it in clothes, tools, and utensils, to the entire satisfaction of the natives, who still retained more lands than they could possibly use, being very few in number.

Maryland was discovered in the year 1606, when Virginia was first planted, and, for some time, was esteemed a part of Virginia, until Charles I. in the year 1632, granted all that part of Virginia which lay North of Patowmac river, and was not then planted, to the right honourable Cecilius Calvert, Lord Baltimore of the kingdom of Ireland, and to his heirs; which was afterwards named Maryland, in honour of the then queen consort Henrietta Maria, youngest daughter of the French king Henry IV. The Lord Baltimore sent over his brother, the hon. Leonard Calvert, Esq; with several Roman Catholic gentlemen, and other adventurers, to the number of 200, who arrived in the bay of Chesapeak in the year 1633; and planted the first colony near the mouth of Patowmac river, and advancing to the Indian town of Yoamaco, they were permitted to reside in one part of the town, in consideration of some presents they made to the Weroance, or prince of the country, who left them in possession of the whole town as soon as this people had got in their harvest; whereupon Mr Calvert gave the town the name of St Mary's: but what principally induced the Weroance to be so exceedingly civil to the English was his being at war with the Susquehannah Indians, and expecting to be protected by the English against that potent enemy, who had very nearly driven him out of his country. And such was the good understanding between the Yoamaco Indians and this colony, that, while the English were planting the country, the Indians hunted for them in the woods, and brought them in great quantities of venison and wild fowl; and many Roman Catholic families coming over from England to avoid the penal laws, this soon became a flourishing colony, of which the

the Calverts remained governors until the civil wars in England, when the family were deprived of the government of this province, but recovered it again on the restoration of King Charles II. And the hon. Charles Calvert, son of the Lord Baltimore, remained governor of that colony near twenty years, who promoted the planting of tobacco here, till the colony became almost as considerable for that branch of business as Virginia; and the family still remain proprietors of this plantation, being one of the most considerable estates enjoyed by any subject of Great Britain abroad.

The North-East part of the continent of America was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot, a native of Bristol. In the year 1497 he discovered all the coast, from Cape Florida, in 25 degrees of North Latitude, to 67 and an half; from whence England claimed a right to Virginia, prior to the Spaniards, or any other European power.

Queen Elizabeth having equipped several squadrons, under the command of those celebrated commanders Drake, Hawkins, and Raleigh, to cruize upon the Spanish coasts and islands in America, they brought home such favourable accounts of the riches and fertility of Florida, that a great many enterprising gentlemen appeared very zealous of making settlements in that part of the world, and chose Mr Raleigh, afterwards Sir Walter, to conduct the enterprise, who obtained a patent or grant from Queen Elizabeth, in the year 1584, of all such lands as he should discover in North America, between 33 and 40 degrees of North Latitude, and to dispose of them in fee-simple, or otherwise, to any of the subjects of England, reserving to the crown a fifth part of all the gold and silver ore that should be acquired in such countries, paying the said fifth part to the crown in lieu of all services.

Whereupon Mr Raleigh formed a society among his friends, who contributed large sums, and provided two ships to go upon the discovery, the command having been given to capt. Philip Amidas and capt. Arthur Burlow, who set sail from England on the 20th of April 1584, and arrived at the island of Wokoken, on the coast of Carolina, in 34 degrees odd minutes, North Latitude. They visited another island a little to the Northward, called Roanoak; and some of the officers went over to the neighbouring continent, where they were hospitably entertained by Wingina, the king of that part of the country; however, they returned to the island of Wokoken before night, where they bartered some utensils of brass and pewter, axes, hatchets, and knives, with the natives, for skins and furs; and, having disposed of all their goods, and loaded their ships with skins, saltstarras, and cedar, and procured some pearls and tobacco, they parted with the natives in a very friendly manner, returning to England with two Indians, who desired to come along with them. The tobacco brought home by these adventurers, being the first that was ever seen in England, was then cried up as a most valuable plant, and a remedy for almost every disease.

These two ships having made a profitable voyage, and given out that the country was immensely rich, Mr Raleigh and his friends fitted out a fleet of seven ships more, giving the command of it to Sir Rich. Greenville, who set sail from Plymouth the 9th of April, 1585, and arrived at the island of Wokoken the 20th of June following.

lowing, where the admiral's ship was cast away going into the harbour; but he and all the crew were saved. The Admiral afterwards conducted the adventurers to the island of Roanoak, from whence he went over to the continent, and took a view of the country: and one of the natives stealing a silver cup, he took a severe revenge; burnt and plundered an Indian town, with all the corn growing in their fields, and, leaving 108 men on the island of Roanoak, under the command of Mr Ralph Lane, directed him to make further discoveries, and then set sail for England, promising to return with such reinforcements as should enable him to subdue the neighbouring continent: but Mr Lane marching to the West, found the country destroyed before him as he advanced; and it was with great difficulty that he made his retreat to Roanoak again. And here the colony were in great danger of starving, if Admiral Drake had not taken them up as he was returning from a cruize, and brought them to England.

Sir Walter sent over several other little embarkations; but, neglecting to support them, all of them perished.

No farther attempts were made to fix colonies either in Carolina or Virginia, until the reign of James I. who, by his letters patent, dated the 10th of April 1606, authorized Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, Richard Hackluit, Clerk, Prebendary of Westminster, and other adventurers, to plant the coast of Virginia, between 34 and 45 degrees of North Latitude; who thereupon fitted out three small ships, giving the command of them to Captain Christopher Newport, who set sail from the Downs the 5th of January, 1606-7, and, on the 26th of April, 1607, arrived in the bay of Chesapeake; and sailing up the river Powhatan, now James river, they landed on a Peninsula about fifty miles up the river, where they built a fort, and afterwards a town, which they called James town, in honour of King James I. from whom they received their patent. This was the first town built by the English on the continent of America.

There happened some skirmishes between the English and the natives at their landing; but the Indians, apprehending they should not be able to maintain their ground against a people furnished with fire-arms, pretended to be reconciled, waiting, however, for an opportunity of falling upon these strangers, when they should meet with an advantage. The fort being finished, Capt. Newport, on the 22d of June, 1607, returned to England, leaving 104 men in the new settlement.

The garrison, soon finding themselves in want of provisions, and the natives refusing to furnish them with any, though they offered to give the full value for them, the English found themselves under a necessity of plundering the country; upon which an open war commenced between them and the natives; however, fresh supplies and reinforcements coming over, commanded by Lord Delawar, the Indians were glad to enter into a treaty of peace, during which the English, finding a great demand for tobacco in Europe, began to encourage the planting of it, in which they succeeded beyond their expectations; and at the same time Sir George Yardley, the governor, established a government resembling that of England, and the

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first general assembly or parliament met at James-town, in May, 1626; and negroes were first imported into Virginia the same year.

The Indians, in the mean time, looking upon themselves as a conquered people, entered into a conspiracy to massacre all the English, on the 22d of March, 1622, about noon, when the English were abroad at work on their plantations, without arms; and they actually murdered 347 of the English, most of them being killed by their own working-tools; but an Indian, who had been well used by his master, disclosing the design to him a little before this execution, he gave notice to the rest of the planters, who stood upon their defence, and not only saved their own lives, but cut off great numbers of the Indians.

The planters, not long after, falling out among themselves, the Indians took an advantage of their divisions, and made another attempt to recover their country, killing great numbers of the English by surprise.

These misfortunes being ascribed to the mal-administration of the company, King Charles I. dissolved them in the year 1626, and reduced the government of Virginia under his own immediate direction, appointing the government and council himself, ordering all patents and processes to issue in the king's name, reserving a quit-rent of two-shillings for every hundred acres of land. The planters, however, falling into factions and parties again, the Indians made a third effort to recover their lost liberties, and cut off near 500 more of the English; but they were at length repulsed, and their king Oppatuncanough taken prisoner, and killed by a private soldier, very much against the will of Sir William Berkley, the then governor, who designed to have brought him over into England, being a man of extraordinary stature, and uncommon parts.

Sir William afterwards made peace with the Indians, which continued a considerable time; but, the civil war commencing in England, he was removed from his government during the usurpation, when an ordinance of parliament was made, prohibiting the plantations to receive or export any goods but in English ships; which gave birth to the act of navigation in the reign of king Charles II. who reinstated Sir William Berkley in his government at the restoration.

Sir William promoted the manufactures of silk and linen in this plantation, and was esteemed an excellent governor; but the act of navigation restraining the planters from sending their merchandize to foreign countries, and from receiving cloathing, furniture, or supplies from any nation but England, creating a great deal of discontent, Mr Bacon, a popular factious gentleman, took the advantage of their disaffection, and, setting up for himself, drew the people into rebellion, deposed the governor, and compelled him to fly to the Eastern shore of the bay of Chesapeak; and, had not Bacon died in good time, he had probably made himself Sovereign of Virginia; but, upon his death, Sir William returned to his government, and the people to their duty.

Carolina was the last country in America planted by the English, after Sir Walter Raleigh's unfortunate attempts to fix colonies in Carolina, in the latter end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. This country

country seems to have been entirely overlooked till the restoration of King Charles II. The then ministry, being informed that Carolina would produce wine, oil, and silk, and almost every thing that Britain wanted, procured a patent or grant from King Charles to themselves, dated the 24th of March 1663. of great part of this coast; the grantees being Edward Earl of Clarendon, Lord Chancellor; George Duke of Albemarle, the General; William Lord Craven, John Lord Berkeley, the Lord Anthony Ashley Cooper, Sir George Carteret, Sir William Colleton, and their heirs. These proprietors, however, did little towards planting it, until the year 1670, when Lord Ashley struck out a whimsical kind of government for the colony, creating a Palatine or Sovereign, with a council to be a check upon him; which involved them in perpetual quarrels, and almost destroyed the plantation as soon as it was settled; to prevent which, they were at length obliged to sell their shares to the crown; and it is now a royal government, only Earl Granville thought fit to retain his seventh share, which his family still remains in possession of.

The Carolinas being frequently invaded and harrassed by the French and Spanish Indians, the English found it necessary to extend their plantations farther South, and added that province denominated Georgia, contiguous to the Carolinas; and trustees were appointed to fortify that frontier against the incursions of the Indians, who accordingly built towns, and erected forts on or near the banks of the rivers Savannah and Altamaha, in order to cover these provinces against any hostile attempts on that side, for here only they were liable to be attacked: As to the rest, the Apalachian mountains cover the two Carolinas from any invasion from the West.

General Oglethorpe commanded the first embarkation for Georgia, to whom the Creek nation voluntarily relinquished their right to all the country South of the river Savannah, the Northern limits of this new province of Georgia; and articles of commerce were settled between the English and Creeks. There were some attempts made the last war to add the Spanish port of St Augustine to the province of Georgia; and had not General Oglethorpe been betrayed, he had probably reduced that fortress; but not being able to confide in his own people, he found it necessary to retire from thence; and the Spaniards not long after returned the visit, and invaded Georgia, which was so well defended by Mr Oglethorpe, that the Spaniards were beaten off; however, till the last treaty of peace, they always insisted that the province of Georgia, or part of it, belonged to the crown of Spain.

The Spaniards possessed themselves of Florida immediately after their conquest of Mexico, under which name they comprehended all those countries which lye North of the gulph of Mexico, of which Carolina and the rest of the British plantations are part; but the Spaniards abandoning part of this country for richer settlements in Mexico and Peru, the English planted most of the Eastern coast, now stiled British America; the Spaniards retaining only St Augustine, and two or three other small places East of the river Mississippi, and what lyes West of that river; and thus the country situated between the English plantations on the East and the Spanish territories in the West, remained under the dominion of the Florida Indians until

the year 1718, when the French took possession of the mouth of the river Mississippi, and erected some forts, by virtue whereof they laid claim to the greatest part of Florida; incroaching on the Spanish territories on the West, and the English dominions on the East. They did, indeed, once before erect some forts on the Spanish side of the river Mississippi, but the Spaniards demolished them, and drove the French out of the country; however, since France and Spain have been so closely united, the Spaniards seem to wink at their incroachments; but the English, who have ever looked upon this country, as far Westward as the river Mississippi, to belong to the colonies of the Carolinas and Georgia, or at least to their Indian allies the Creeks or Cherokees, thought they had very good reason to dispute this part of Florida with the French, these Indians having ceded to the English all this country which they do not chuse themselves; and it must be admitted that the natives only can give the Europeans a just title to it.

History of the Revolt of the BRITISH COLONIES and of the WAR in America.

TO form some idea of the original of this quarrel, we must consider the form of government established in the British provinces, and which has already been particularly mentioned under each of their names. This consisted of an upper and lower house of representatives, with a governor appointed by the crown; greatly resembling the parliament and lord lieutenant of Ireland. The houses of representatives had the power of making laws relating to the internal management of each province, and which became valid by the governor's approbation, just as the laws of Britain become valid by the royal assent. With regard to other matters, they reckoned themselves subject to the legislature of Great Britain; and as long as the colonies were in their infant-state, there was neither inclination nor occasion to quarrel; the colonists were occasionally protected by the mother country, as they stood in need of her protection; and both they themselves, and the inhabitants of Britain, reckoned them on the very same footing with the natives of this country.

But though the colonies were spared while in their infancy, it could not be expected that Great Britain was to defend them upon all occasions, and when they were grown able to defend themselves. At all times, indeed, the colonists shewed themselves very unwilling to part with their money, even in their own defence, and such jealousies and discords reigned between the different provinces, that to appearance they would have been glad that their neighbours had become a prey to their enemies. In the year 1754, however, the incroachments of the French made it evident, either that the colonists must take some means for their defence, or fall at once a prey to these intruders. Accordingly, commissioners from many of the colonies met at Albany,

bany, in order to form a plan of union for their common defence. The plan they proposed was, "That a grand council should be formed of members to be chosen by the assemblies, and sent from all the different colonies; which council, together with a governor-general, to be appointed by the crown, should be empowered to make general laws, and to raise money in all the colonies for the defence of the whole." This plan was sent over to the government of Britain, for its approbation, but was by the then ministry rejected, and the following proposed in its stead: "That the governors of all the colonies, attended by one or two of their respective councils, should assemble, and concert measures for the defence of the whole; erect forts where they should judge proper; raise what troops they thought necessary; with power to draw on the treasury of Britain for the sums they wanted; and the treasury to be re-imburshed by a tax laid upon the colonies by act of parliament. This plan was at that time objected to, for the following reasons: 1. That the people of the colonies, who were to feel the immediate mischiefs of invasion, were the best judges of the force necessary to expel it. 2. That the governors, not being always men of the best characters, nor of the largest estates in their *own country*, might be suspected of keeping more troops in pay than were necessary, in order to make their fortunes the sooner in *America*, by the profits accruing to them from the money passing through their hands, &c. 3. That the counsellors, in most colonies, were men of small estates, and too much under the influence of the governors. 4. That such governors and counsellors might find it their interest to raise draughts on the treasury; and being once imposed, the continuance of them is easily prolonged, and the tax for the re-payment of them never to be remitted. 5. That the parliament of Great Britain, being at a great distance, was subject to mis-information by such governors, &c. and the people, having no representatives, could have no means of undeceiving the legislature. 6. That it is the supposed right of every *Englishman*, to be taxed only by his own consent, through the person of his representative. 7. That the colonies, having no representatives, could yield no consent to their taxations. 8. That compelling the colonies to pay money without their consent, would be rather like raising contributions in an enemy's country, than taxing Englishmen in their own defence. 9. That if the colonies in a body may be well governed by magistrates appointed by the crown, the provinces singly may also be so governed, and their assemblies dismissed as an useless part of the constitution.

These were the chief objections of the Americans at that time; and as the commencement of the war with France rendered it impossible to push matters then, the ministry dropped the project, and suffered things to continue as before. Upon the commencement of the peace, however, the dispute was quickly resumed, and it hath since appeared, that neither the ministry nor the Americans have in the least receded from the principles they maintained at that time.

Without entering into the question which hath been so much agitated, first by words, writings, and mobs, and then by force of arms, we may be allowed to make the following observations on the above plans.

1. The American plan carries an evident appearance of independence.

cy in it; for, if the general council consisted of members elected by the majority of the assemblies of the particular provinces, these members behoved to be very much under the influence of the assemblies; so that if the province did not chuse to give what was necessary, (and indeed their general behaviour did not promise much,) the council would never determine against their inclination, and thus Great Britain would still be left in the lurch for as large sums as the colonists chose she should pay for their defence. 2. By the ministerial plan matters were entirely reversed, and it is evident the colonies were just as much at the disposal of the government of Britain, without their own consent, as by the former one they were at their own disposal, without the consent of the British legislature. We see, therefore, that the dispute unavoidably turns upon what hath always been insisted upon by the Americans and their adherents; namely, the natural rights of mankind; Whether are men to be considered as born free, in the same state in which they were at first created, or, are they to be considered as born under, and necessarily subject to the same laws which governed their forefathers. In either case the Americans were never at a loss for argument. If their opposonets insisted on the right of governors and magistrates, they replied, That mankind were originally on an equality, and that governors were created by the subjects, and not subjects by their governors; and, of consequence, that the governors have no right to exercise any authority, farther than the people originally gave them liberty. If the friends of government urged, that every good member of society ought to be subject to the laws under which he was born, the Americans appealed to their charters. If it was urged, that the charters were granted them when in very different circumstances, and consequently that there was now a necessity for altering those charters, they replied, That there might indeed be a necessity for this, but that it ought not to be done without their own consent, &c. and thus, when the matter was left to dispute, no end of it could ever be found.

But though the affair of taxation was the only apparent cause of the American discontent, the true reason seems to have been such as is, perhaps, irremediable by human wisdom; viz. that the two countries are natural rivals to one another. Both Great Britain and America produce in abundance all the necessaries and conveniences of life. Certain superfluities, however, are reckoned necessary by all nations, and some of these superfluities are produced in British America. For these the British would gladly exchange such necessaries as the Americans wanted, and which the infant-state of their manufactures could not allow them to prepare for themselves. While the colonists, therefore, were few in number, they would not think of manufacturing for themselves, or of getting their necessaries any where else than from Great Britain. But, as they have remarkably increased in number, and, like other people, could not be satisfied with the produce of their own country, it so happened, that the British exports to America always exceeded the imports from it; and hence the Americans were always indebted to this country. As therefore they could hope to draw no money from Great Britain; it is natural to suppose that they would look for it somewhere else. For this reason they took all opportunities of trading with their Southern neighbours the Spaniards;

ards, who gave them gold and silver for their commodities; and as this gold and silver came through the hands of the Americans into the hands of the British merchants, it is not to be imagined that they would find any fault with a trade of this kind. But as this trade was diametrically opposite to the interests of the King of Spain, it became necessary to forbid it by an act of the British parliament, and the Spaniards endeavoured to prevent it as much as possible, by their guarda costas; these, however, were never able, with all their vigilance, to put a stop to it; so that between their fair trade with Britain, and their smuggling with the Spaniards, the colonists were enabled to live in the greatest affluence.

Soon after the conclusion of the late war with France the plan of taxation was renewed, in consequence of which the famous stamp-act passed, whereby it was declared unlawful to draw any bills or bonds except upon stamped paper; and all writings of that kind, which were otherwise drawn, were declared by the act to be null and void. This the Americans considered as a great grievance; prodigious tumults ensued, especially at Boston, where all along the inhabitants seem to have been of the most turbulent spirit, and least inclined to subjection. Resolutions were formed against importing any thing from Britain, or indeed against doing any business at all, and a congress of committees from all the provinces was even then proposed, in order to consider of what was to be done. Thus every thing seemed at that time ready for the revolt which hath since happened, but the disturbances were in some measure quelled by the repeal of that act in 1766. No sooner was this so obnoxious act repealed, than another was made in its stead, wherein it was declared, that all his majesty's colonies in America have been and ought to be subservient to, and dependent on the imperial crown and parliament of Great Britain; and that the King, with consent of parliament, has power to bind them in all cases whatsoever; and that all resolutions made against any of these acts of parliament were of themselves null and void. This act, which was directly contrary to the American principles of liberty, and what they thought an infringement of their natural rights, could not fail of being very disagreeable. To add to their discontent, another act was passed in 1767, laying a duty on some articles, such as glass, paper, painters colours, and tea, exported from Britain to America; and at the same time another law was made, for enabling his Majesty to put the American customs and other duties under the management of commissioners to reside in that country, with the powers formerly exercised by the commissioners of the customs in England.

As these last acts touched them in a most tender point, it was not to be wondered that great disturbances ensued. The Americans considered it as very grievous, that they should not be allowed to purchase those commodities from any other place than Great Britain, and, at the same time, that the price of them should be increased by taxes, and the expences of keeping collectors for these taxes. This appeared to them as the highest degree of oppression; first to send three thousand miles for these necessities; then to pay what price the merchant pleased for them; and thus allow him a large profit, which they could not remedy, as not being allowed to purchase them any where else; and in the last place, to pay an arbitrary tax to govern-

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ment, which, for any thing they knew, might be increased without limitation.

The affair of the customhouse, which was now established in its full force by sending over commissioners, was a grievance, because it prevented their smuggling with the Spaniards, or any where else, and thus stopt the only source whence they could derive their money. Hence the officers of the customs met with the most indecent and barbarous treatment; and when some troops arrived at Boston in 1768, in order to assist the civil government there, the inhabitants made all the opposition they could to the getting them properly quartered.

It would require a volume to describe all the different manœuvres of the contending parties to gain their point. Numberless were the tumults, riots, and threatnings, not only in Boston, but throughout all America. Resolutions were entered into against importing any of the taxed articles, and to declare those public enemies who did. These resolutions, however, were very indifferently kept, numbers endeavouring, by large private importations, to avail themselves of the public disturbances. On the other hand, the British legislature, no doubt, perceiving that there was no medium between absolute subjection and entire liberty to the Americans, refused to relax one article of the obnoxious acts of parliament, and there seemed now to be nothing but a continual contest between the governors and their assemblies, the latter always entering into resolutions contrary to the design of the British parliament, and the former endeavouring in vain to persuade them that they were wrong in so doing; so that seeing both were firmly fixed in their different opinions, there seemed, even then, to be no remedy.

But though from the principles of the Americans, and their situation with regard to the mother country, it seems impossible that this quarrel should not have happened, and, though they were again reduced to obedience, it seems equally impossible that the peace should last, yet we cannot help thinking, that the disturbances occasioned by the patriots in this country contributed very much to bring the American affairs sooner to a crisis than otherwise would have happened. These arose immediately on the conclusion of the late peace with France. This nation having been very successful in the preceding war, it may readily be supposed, that the minds of the generality ran upon nothing but spoils and conquest; always reckoning the wealth of a nation from its wide extended dominions, as that of an individual is from the quantity of goods, or money he has in possession. Others, who considered the vast expence and burden of a war, together with the difficulty of defending and preserving vast conquests, were of a different opinion; and therefore when Mr Pitt, afterwards Lord Chatham, resigned the seals, under whose auspices the war had been successfully carried on, pacific measures were entered into, and the war continued with the view only of obtaining an honourable peace. When the peace was concluded, many of the British conquests were given up; the province of Canada, however, was kept, that the Americans might never have any thing more to fear from the French, who formerly were such troublesome neighbours. The idea of giving up conquered countries is what never enters into the mind of the generality. Thus a fair foundation was laid for those who were out of power to rail

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against those who were in, and which they did not fail to make the most of. Accordingly, numberless were the complaints made of the shameful peace which had been concluded after so glorious a war, with bitter investives against the Earl of Bute as the peace-maker, and encomiums on Mr Pitt, as the saviour of his country. The famous Mr Wilkes, in particular, proceeded so far in this way, that it was thought necessary to apprehend his person. This was done by what is called a general warrant; and some illegality having been used in seizing him, an occasion was given him and his adherents to raise a cry of oppression; which, when once begun, was easily continued, and Wilkes was looked upon as a martyr to the liberty of his country. Having had the misfortune likewise to be indicted for blasphemy, and being at the same time under a parliamentary prosecution, he was obliged to fly to France, when he was outlawed in Britain for non-appearance.

This persecution of an individual, who but for that very persecution would have been contemptible, served only to make the faction grow still the stronger. On Wilkes's return to England, he obtained a reversal of his outlawry, was thrice chosen member of parliament for Middlesex, and his election as often declared null and void, Colonel Lutterel taking his seat, as member for that county, notwithstanding a great majority in favour of Mr Wilkes.

An attack made upon the liberty of election was considered as the greatest grievance imaginable; although we may easily suppose it possible for passion or prejudice to influence the majority of the freeholders of a single county, so as to cause them err in judgment, and elect a person totally unqualified for sitting in the great legislative council of the nation. A society was now formed, under the name of the Bill of Rights Society, which was to preserve the rights of the people, but in what manner was not mentioned, and large sums were subscribed for this purpose. In the mean time, the affairs of the Americans, as of brethren in the like distress, were taken into consideration, and a general design of imposing slavery upon the whole subjects of the British empire was by the patriotic party said to have taken place: Petitions, remonstrances, &c. which carried in them something of the appearance of threats, were presented to the King from all quarters; the most scurrilous abuse was poured forth on the King, the ministry, and the Scots; in short, nothing but actual taking up of arms seemed wanting to the commencement of a rebellion.

The leaders of the Americans, knowing of these disturbances in Britain, and no doubt representing them to be greater than they were, certainly found considerably less difficulty than otherwise they would have done in uniting the different colonies into such an association as they at last entered into. The houses of representatives resembling the parliament of Great Britain, the expulsion of Wilkes from the British parliament, was judged an indignity similar to American taxation without representation at all, as the people of Middlesex did not account themselves represented by Colonel Lutterel. The patriots in Britain, therefore, warmly espoused the American cause, as the Americans themselves espoused that of the British patriots when occasion offered.

While the humour of the Americans was still going on from bad to worse, the British Parliament, as if to try whether they would at any rate

rate be subject, made an act by which the duties were taken off from glass, painters colours, paper and paste-board, &c. exported from Britain to America. The single article of tea was left out, upon which was a duty of three-pence per pound. But though this had some effect in dissolving the non-importation agreements, formerly entered into with regard to all commodities imported from Britain, the flame was only smothered for a little time, seemingly that it might break out with greater violence. By the resolutions of several of the colonies, indeed, tea was strictly prohibited; but still continued to be cautiously introduced, and the duty paid on it; so that the American patriots had the mortification to see that taxation would in some shape or other take place whether they would or not.

Besides the tea-duty and the custom-houses, however, other matters sprung up which added fuel to the flame. In a time of such general disturbance, it was evidently very improper that the governors of the Provinces should have a dependence on the people for their subsistence, as this was putting them entirely in the power of the inhabitants to compel them to what they pleased. A salary from the crown was therefore given them; and this gave occasion to the people to complain of want of confidence in them, altho' it evidently appeared unsafe to trust them.

The custom-houses, however, for the reason we have already given, were the greatest eye-sore; and therefore, June 10th 1772, the people at Providence, in Rhode-Island, assembled to the number of 200, and burned his Majesty's schooner the *Gaspée*, which had been stationed there to prevent their smuggling. Neither could the author, or any accomplice of such a daring exploit be found out, tho' a reward of 500*l.* was offered for the discovery.

As the article of tea was so generally discouraged throughout the colonies, it appeared to the British ministry that the East-India company was in danger of losing very considerably, having then no less than seventeen millions of pounds on hand. Leave was therefore given to this company to export their teas, duty-free, to all places whatsoever; and accordingly several ships freighted with it were sent to the American colonies.

This measure was considered by the Americans as a method of insensibly subjecting them to taxation, and therefore they resolved to prevent the first beginning of it. This could be done only by hindering the landing of the tea; for if once this was permitted, it could easily be foreseen, that no resolutions whatever would prevent its being disposed of. For this reason, when the tea-ships arrived at Boston, and had been for some time very near the shore, it being apprehended that their cargoes would, by degrees, be privately landed and sold, a number of people, dressed like Mohawk Indians, boarded the ships, and threw the cargoes into the sea. Several lesser quantities of tea met with the same fate in the other provinces, and from this time we may date the total cessation of all kind of friendship between Great Britain and her colonies.

It could not be thought that an outrage of such a nature would pass unnoticed. The Bostonians refused to make satisfaction for the tea which had been destroyed; and the British legislature resolved to inflict punishment. A bill for shutting up Boston port was brought in-

to parliament, and passed, though with some opposition. The Bostonians, instead of repenting, were only the more irritated by this measure. The rest of the colonies, looking with compassion on the inhabitants of that city, who were thrown into the greatest distress by the execution of this act, contributed very largely towards their relief. Delegates were appointed from all the colonies to meet in a general congress at Philadelphia; and this assembly was now considered as the supreme legislative power in British America. From this assembly a petition was sent to the King in November 1774, but did not meet with a favourable reception. A letter was also sent to the inhabitants of Great Britain; the province of Quebec was addressed; the assembly of South Carolina wrote to the Bill of Rights Society in London; Mr Wilkes, in the name of the inhabitants of the city of London, presented a petition to the King; and, in short, all means possible were used for drawing into the general association, not only all the inhabitants of America, but the inhabitants of Great Britain also. A general resolution against importing British commodities was now entered into; and, under pretence of increasing the militia of the provinces, to defend them in case of an invasion, such numbers of men appeared in arms, that General Gage, at that time governor of Boston, was under the necessity of fortifying that place, in order to preserve himself and the troops under his command.

Hostilities commenced on the 19th of April 1775. The General having notice of a quantity of military stores which were about to be conveyed to the provincial army, sent a detachment of grenadiers to destroy them; which they did, but were attacked in their return by the Americans, who killed and wounded a considerable number of them, firing from behind stone-walls and hedges to screen themselves in the best manner they could. Immediately after this the provincial army shut up the King's forces in Boston, and closely invested the place. General Gage now issued a proclamation, declaring all those to be rebels who did not immediately lay down their arms. To this the provincials paid no regard, but on the 20th of June erected a battery against the town, upon an eminence called Bunker's Hill. Here they were attacked by the British troops, who drove them from their works, though greatly superior in numbers, and very strongly entrenched, burning the small town of Charlestown, at a small distance from Boston. It is not, however, certainly known by what means this town was set on fire.

War being thus begun, the Congress openly assumed the sovereignty, shut up the courts of law, and entirely altered the form of government throughout the continent. A part of the American army, under General Montgomery, entered the province of Canada, which they totally reduced, excepting the city of Quebec, where General Carleton commanded. This place was reduced to great straits; but on the 31st of December, General Montgomery having attempted to take it by storm, was killed, together with the flower of his army. This severe check so damped the American valour, that, on the 6th of May 1776, when some fresh troops arrived from Britain to the assistance of General Carleton, 5000 of the Provincials fled before 1500 of the British troops, without stopping till they reached Sorrel, which is 140 miles distant from Quebec.

General Gage, having left Major General Howe commander at Boston, returned to England. His successor, by reason of the great number of his enemies, could attempt nothing; and no succours arriving from Britain, the town was evacuated on the 18th of March 1776, when the rebels under General Washington took possession of it.

The transactions of the year 1775 having made it apparent that no pacific measures could with any propriety be pursued, a numerous fleet and army were sent, under the command of Lord Howe, brother to the General of that name who commanded at Boston, and who sailed for Halifax after his departure from thence. On the other hand, the Americans seem not to have been wanting in the utmost efforts of human skill to put themselves in a proper posture of defence. Their main army was now stationed at New York, where very strong fortifications were raised, in such a manner as to be deemed almost impregnable. In the beginning of June 1776 the congress issued a proclamation, declaring the United Colonies free and independent States, and in the month following declared war in form against Great Britain. A paper currency was also issued, orders of knighthood instituted, and, in short, a new republic formed.

Upon Lord Howe's arrival he was met by some ambassadors from the congress, who wanted to treat of peace, but as they found he would not receive them in what they thought their proper character, namely, that of ambassadors, nor could offer them any terms, except that of submission to his Majesty's clemency, no negotiation took place.

The campaign of 1776 promised to be decisive in favour of the British arms, notwithstanding a repulse which Lieutenant General Clinton and Commodore Sir Peter Parker met with before Charlestown in the month of July. In this attack their ships suffered very much; one of 28 guns was run a-ground and burnt, so prevent her from falling into the hands of the enemy, and 245 men were killed and wounded, on the British, according to their account. But this was amply compensated by the success of General Howe and his brother at New York; where, besides the taking of that city, the Americans lost, in the various engagements, upwards of 5000 men, many of them of the best families; and which of consequence greatly damped their spirits, and tended to introduce a despondency of mind very inconsistent with success in military affairs.

After the surrender of New York some of the Americans set fire to it, and a third part of it was consumed; neither did all the losses they had met with seem, in the least, to bring them to any disposition to submit. General Washington, though he carefully avoided a battle, yet found means to prevent the royal army from obtaining any great footing in the country, and in the night of the 25th of December his army crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of Hessians in the pay of Great Britain, and took upwards of 900 of them, and 1000 stand of arms. This was the first check which the royal army had received, and which might be looked upon as of no great consequence; nevertheless, it soon after appeared that the British army was not able to penetrate farther into the country, nor even to keep the posts which they had already gained; for they soon after retreated nearer to the city of New York. In this month, however,

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the British acquired Rhode Island; which was taken possession of by General Clinton and Sir Peter Parker.

Thus stood matters at the end of the year 1776, at which time it was generally thought, in this country, that another campaign would finally determine the contest in favour of Great Britain. An expedition had been projected, which promised to be very effectual in subjugating the colonists, and which, to government, seemed very easily practicable. This was an invasion of the Northern colonies from Canada, where an army would be able to get into the heart of their country, and spread devastation wherever they pleased. The command of this expedition was given to Lieutenant General Burgoyne, a very gallant and experienced officer, and who had performed great services in the last war with France. He set out from Quebec with an army, including Indians, of which he had a large body, of near 13,000 men, with a very fine train of artillery, and provided with every thing necessary for the army. The Americans fled every where before him, and abandoned the fortress of Ticonderago, though capable of making a very great resistance if defended by a spirited garrison. Great rejoicings were made in this country on account of this success, and few were found who entertained a doubt concerning the fortunate event of the expedition. Another enterprize was planned against the city of Philadelphia, which was successively put in execution by General Howe. General Washington, in order to defend that city, relaxed a little from his usual caution, and ventured an engagement at two different times with the British army. In both, however, he was unsuccessful, and the city soon after surrendered. This news was received in Britain with the utmost exultation; but, in the mean time, the Northern army, under General Burgoyne, was struggling with insufferable difficulties. The Americans, though struck with a panic at first, soon began to recover from their terror. They were provoked beyond measure at the cruelties committed by the Indians in the British service, and therefore began to assemble in great numbers under General Gates, of whom they had a great opinion. The British army suffered severely from the badness of the roads, all of which had been destroyed by the Americans; from swamps, morasses, and many other difficulties, which could not be foreseen, and which required the utmost exertion of human labour and industry to remove. Of these difficulties we may have some idea, by considering that in the course of this expedition the British army had built no fewer than forty-two bridges; one of them over a morass two miles long. The Americans now began to make frequent and desperate attacks, in which great numbers fell on both sides, at the same time that the want of provisions began to be felt in the British camp. The General, however, still pushed on as well as circumstances would permit, till at length his army, being much reduced, and surrounded by one fourth of their number, he was obliged to capitulate. The poor consolation of marching out with the honours of war was not denied, and the troops were to be allowed to return to Europe, on condition of not serving during the war; but this last part of the convention was, under various pretences, put off, and at last totally refused by the Americans. In this unfortunate expedition, Brigadier-General Frazer, a very gallant officer, with many others, lost his life. At the time

of the surrender, General Burgoyne's army had only three days subsistence.

About this time also, Sir Henry Clinton and General Vaughan made a successful expedition up the North river, destroying a town called Elopus, and making themselves masters of several forts: the Americans, however, complained much of the cruelty of the British in this expedition, that they wantonly burnt and destroyed houses, &c. Many such complaints, indeed, had been made on both sides since the beginning of the war, and probably not without reason. But General Clinton's expedition was unimportant in its consequences, while, by failure of Burgoyne's expedition, all hope of subduing the colonies seemed to be extinguished at once. Affairs now indeed seemed to be in a very gloomy situation on the British side. The successes in Pennsylvania appeared quite trifling and unimportant. The resources in Germany were almost exhausted; men were not only procured with difficulty, but the King of Prussia denied a passage through part of his dominions to a body of those in the service of Britain; which circumstance not only occasioned a great loss of time to them, but made it evident that little was to be expected from that quarter for the future. At the same time the conduct of France, which had long been mysterious, now became more unequivocal; and at last the French ambassador openly gave in a declaration from his master, importing, that he was resolved to support the independency of the American States, and had prepared for the event, in case the declaration should not be agreeable to the King of Britain.

In the mean time, the spirit of the nation seemed to be exasperated by the disgrace of Burgoyne's surrender, and several regiments were raised by different towns in Scotland and England, as well as by some noblemen who had the public cause at heart. The most violent debates took place in parliament, the event of which at the last was, a resolution to send commissioners to negotiate with the Americans. These commissioners were five in number, and were endowed with the following powers: They were enabled to treat with the congress by name, as if it were a legal body; and to give it authenticity so far as to suppose its acts binding upon all America. They might also treat with any of the provincial assemblies in the situation in which they found them, and with any individuals in their civil military capacities, which had formerly been refused; the owning the supremacy of Britain being till then made a necessary preliminary to negotiation. The commissioners also were to have power to order a suspension of arms, to suspend all the operations of the laws, and to grant all sorts of pardons, immunities, and rewards. They had also a power of restoring all the colonies, or any of them, to the form of their ancient constitution as it stood before the troubles; and likewise in those where the King nominated the governors, &c. they had power to nominate others, till his majesty's pleasure should be known.

In Lord North's speech, on the occasion of proposing the commissioners, he mentioned his disappointment at the events of the war in such a manner as must be understood to be a tacite charge of misconduct against the generals who had the management of it; and indeed the conduct of General Howe seemed to be very much blamed, both

at that time, and ever since. Accordingly he returned to England, and on the 8th of May 1778 General Clinton arrived at Philadelphia to take the command of the army. In the mean time, the news of the commissioners, and of their errand, had arrived at America before themselves, and were displeasing to both parties. The army, being accustomed to expect the most unconditional submission from the Americans, thought their personal honour wounded by the concessions made to them by the ministry. The Americans, on the other hand, considered this as an insidious way of dividing them among themselves, and subjecting them to the arbitrary power of the British ministry. Accordingly the commissioners received an answer to the following purpose from the congress by their president Henry Laurens: 'They observed, that the acts of the British parliament, the commission from the King of Britain and the letter, supposed the people of these states to be subjects of the crown of Great Britain, and were founded on the idea of dependence, which was totally inadmissible. They informed them that they were inclined to peace notwithstanding the unjust claims from which the war originated, and the savage manner in which it had been conducted. They would therefore be ready to enter into the consideration of a treaty of peace and commerce, not inconsistent with treaties already subsisting, when the King of Great Britain should demonstrate a sincere disposition for that purpose. But the only solid proof of that disposition would be an explicit acknowledgment of the independence of those states, or the withdrawing of his fleets and armies.'

The commissioners finding themselves disappointed in their negotiation with the congress, next dispersed some publications by way of appeals to the people at large. In this they proceeded upon a principle which, though very generally believed in Britain, seems never to have had any foundation in fact, namely, that the bulk of the Americans were well affected to the British government, and that the greater part of the remainder were held in a state of delusion by the congress. This conduct, however, seemed to give countenance to their having come with a treacherous design, and with this character the commissioners returned to Britain, after some unsuccessful altercation.

On the 18th of June 1778 the British army evacuated Philadelphia, and effected their retreat through the Jerseys with very little loss, though harassed by the American army under General Washington; and here a very remarkable circumstance occurred, namely, that 59 of the British soldiers, and several of the Americans, died with fatigue, without receiving a wound. On this occasion General Washington quarrelled with General Lee, and put him under arrest; and soon after the latter was by a court martial suspended for the space of twelve months from his command.

The pacification between Britain and America was probably prevented at this time by the alliance which the colonies had concluded with France, from which treacherous ally they promised themselves great advantages; though by the event it doth not appear that they have received any material assistance from them, nor indeed doth the history of the nation warrant us to say that they ever heartily assisted any power whatever. However, the fact was, that a fleet was
now

now sent nominally to the assistance of America, under the command of Count D'Estaing, and from this fleet the transports under Lord Howe had a narrow escape. On the 11th of July he appeared unexpectedly before New York, having under his command twelve ships of the line, and three great frigates, with 11,000 land forces on board. The British fleet was greatly inferior in force, yet notwithstanding all the advantages he had, the French admiral could effect nothing; and it appears entirely owing to his incapacity or his treachery, that the British fleets, both under Lord Howe and Admiral Byron, were not entirely destroyed.

Having thus marred an excellently planned scheme of the French ministry for destroying the British navy in America, D'Estaing proceeded to Rhode Island, where having likewise proved unsuccessful, and suffered much in a storm, after a slight engagement with Lord Howe's fleet, he departed, or rather fled to Boston. Here the Americans complained loudly of his conduct, but in vain; and General Sullivan, who commanded the continental forces before Rhode Island, being deserted by the greatest part of his army, found a difficulty of getting away with the rest. D'Estaing was pursued by Lord Howe, but had his fleet so effectually secured by land-batteries, that he could not be attacked; and thus concluded the campaign of 1778 in America. In Europe nothing passed worth mentioning, except an indecisive engagement between the French fleet under D'Orvilliers, and the British fleet under Admiral Keppel, in which both sides claimed the victory.

The campaign of 1779 threatened to be very destructive to both parties in America. We have already observed in general, that the commissioners sent from Britain met with no good success in their embassy. Having at length found it impossible, either to work upon the minds of the congress, or of the people at large, by proffers of peace, they began to use threats, and set forth to them that the war would no longer be carried on in the same mild manner as before. Accordingly, on the 3d of October 1778 they published a valedictory manifesto and proclamation. In this, after repeating the offences of the Americans, and charging them with obduracy in refusing all overtures of accommodation, upbraiding them with having entered into a treaty with France, &c. they concluded as follows: "The policy, as well as the benevolence of Great Britain, had hitherto checked the extremes of war, when they tended to distress a people still considered as fellow-subjects, and to desolate a country shortly to become again a source of mutual advantage; but when that country professes the unnatural design, not only of estranging herself from us, but of mortgaging herself and her resources to our enemies, the whole contest is changed; and the question is, How far Great Britain may, by every means in her power, destroy, or render useless, a connection contrived for her ruin, and for the aggrandizement of France.

"Under such circumstances the laws of self-preservation must direct the conduct of Great Britain; and if the British colonies are to become an accession to France, will direct her to render that accession of as little avail as possible."

It would require a good deal of art to explain the words just now quoted

quoted in any other sense, than that the British were now resolved to *destroy* those whom they could neither conquer nor reduce to submission, by fair means. In this sense the Americans took it, and therefore the congress immediately published a counter-manifesto, in which they set forth, in the strongest terms, the cruel resolution laid down by the British, recommending to the people who lived in places exposed to their ravages, immediately to build huts at the distance of at least 30 miles from their present habitations, whether they were to convey their wives, children, cattle and effects, with all who were incapable of bearing arms, on the first alarm of the enemy. At the same time, however, they shewed, that if the British were cruel they resolved not to be outdone by them; and their resolution was conveyed in the following words: "That immediately when the enemy begins to burn or destroy any town, it be recommended to the people of these States to *set fire, to ravage, burn, and destroy*, the houses and properties of all Tories, and enemies to the freedom and independence of America, and secure the persons of such, so as to prevent them from assisting the enemy; always taking care not to treat them or their families with any wanton cruelties; as we do not, with, in this particular, to copy after our enemies, or their German, Negro, or copper-coloured allies."—In about three weeks after, another manifesto was published by congress, the words of which are so remarkable that we cannot help giving some part of it in their own language: "They (the British) have made a mock of humanity, by the wanton destruction of men: they have made a mock of religion by impious appeals to God, whilst in the violation of his sacred commands: but since their incorrigible dispositions cannot be touched by kindness and compassion, it becomes our duty, by other means, to vindicate the rights of humanity.—We therefore, the Congress of the United States of America, do solemnly declare and proclaim, that if our enemies presume to execute their threats, or persist in their present career of barbarity, we will take such exemplary vengeance as shall deter others from a like conduct. We appeal to that God who searcheth the hearts of men, for the rectitude of our intentions. And in his holy presence we declare, that, as we are not moved by any light and hasty suggestions of anger, or revenge, so, through every possible change of fortune we will adhere to this determination."

Thus did the year 1779 threaten bloodshed and devastation on both parties, but how far the threats on either side have been executed it is impossible to say. The first object of the British this year was the reduction of the province of Georgia, which though neither populous nor rich, afforded a prospect of supplying the forces with its staple commodity rice; it would also relieve the province of East Florida from those continual incursions from Georgia to which it had hitherto been exposed, and would also pave the way for the conquest of South Carolina. The command of the land forces sent from New York for this purpose was given to Colonel Campbell, a brave and experienced officer; and consisted of the 71st regiment of foot, two battalions of Hessians, four of Provincials, and a detachment of the royal artillery. At the same time instructions were given to Major General Prevost, who commanded in East Florida, to collect all the forces

forces he could in order to invade Georgia. The Americans opposed a superior force, but, through the unskillfulness of their generals were utterly defeated, Savannah taken, and General Prevost penetrated as far as Charlestown in South Carolina, which place, however, he was not able to reduce.

The Americans were greatly alarmed by the progress of the royal army, and the royalists so much encouraged, that they assembled in North Carolina to the number of 3000 men; but being ill armed, and very little skilled in military affairs, they were entirely defeated. General Prevost also having found it impossible to reduce Charlestown, was obliged to decamp in the night and retreat Southwards. He was followed by General Lincoln, at the same time that D'Estaing having taken the islands of Dominica and Grenada, invested Savannah with his fleet. The British affairs seemed now to be in a desperate situation. General Prevost was summoned to surrender, but D'Estaing imprudently entering into a literary correspondence with him instead of making the attack, the British General improved that interval so well, that when the confederates made their attack, they were driven off with great slaughter, and D'Estaing immediately abandoned the coasts of America.

Thus ended the campaign of 1779 in the Southern colonies. In the North, the Americans met with some success, surprized the strong fortrefs of Stony Point near New York, of which, however, they could not keep possession; but afterwards met with a prodigious stroke in Penobscot Bay, having all their shipping, consisting of upwards of 130 vessels, destroyed, together with an incredible quantity of stores of all kinds.

The campaign of 1779 had in many respects been favourable to the British arms, and that of 1780 promised to be more so. On the 26th of December 1779 Sir Henry Clinton set sail from New York with a considerable body of troops intended for the reduction of Charlestown in South Carolina, with a fleet of ships of war and transports under the command of Vice-Admiral Arbuthnot. In this expedition they proved successful; the Americans, naturally pusillanimous, little versed in military affairs, and conducted by a general of no experience, surrendered almost without opposition. An immense quantity of cannon and military stores was found in the place, and near 7000 prisoners taken. The victors had only 75 killed and 180 wounded; and the vanquished only 89 killed and 140 wounded.

The accounts of the surrender of Charlestown were received in Britain with the most extravagant demonstrations of joy, though it cannot by any means be thought an equivalent to the difficulties in which the nation was involved by a war with Spain, and which commenced the preceding year. The court of Spain seems to have been induced to this measure merely by the intrigues of the French ministry, without any provocation on the part of the British; neither do the bulk of the Spanish nation appear to have willingly entered into the war. One of the first enterprises in which the Spaniards engaged was the siege of Gibraltar, and which they have continued ever since. On the 8th of January 1780 Sir George Brydges Rodney was dispatched to the relief of Gibraltar, with a very considerable force. He executed his commission with great bravery and success, entirely defeating

defeating the Spanish Squadron, and taking five fine men of war. In this, however, we must take notice, that his strength was greatly superior to that of the enemy; and those who overlooked this circumstance presumed, that, when sent to the West Indies, he would prove as much superior to the French as he had done to the Spaniards in Europe. These expectations, however, have not been realised. Admiral Rodney, though appointed to the American station, hath not been able to accomplish more than others have done before him; in consequence of which he hath fallen under much censure, though apparently with little reason. The transactions since the capture of Charlestown have been trifling and indecisive. Lord Cornwallis indeed hath penetrated, along the sea-coast, into the province of Virginia, and the British hopes, from his valour and good conduct, have been, as in other cases, too sanguine. It doth not appear that there hath ever been a sufficient force sent from Britain to keep a single province completely in awe. Even in Georgia, where our power is greatest, the loyal inhabitants are far from being at their ease; and as the Spaniards have now made themselves masters of Florida, the situation of the Georgians must be more uneasy than before.

In Europe the most important affair hath been the commencement of a war with the Dutch. This happened in consequence of their having supplied the Americans with necessaries, and even engaged in a private league with them as far back as the year 1778. The States, however, seem not to have been expecting a war with Britain, and therefore were in no preparation for it. In consequence of this they have suffered very severely in their trade, but the particulars are too tedious, and of too little importance to be enumerated here. The late engagement, however, between Sir Hyde Parker and the Dutch Squadron commanded by Admiral Zoutman, shews us that the latter are by no means a despicable enemy; and the only prospect which the present posture of affairs affords, is the melancholy one, that Britain hath exerted her utmost strength, while that of her enemies is still augmenting.

The chief hope, or at least one of the principal reasons given for hoping, that the Americans would at last submit of their own accord to the British government, was the distress in which the former were, in various respects, involved on account of the war. At first the want of necessaries was thought sufficient to subdue them; but when year after year made it manifest that they fell upon some method of supplying themselves with such necessaries as are absolutely essential to life, it was next supposed that the depreciation of the paper currency issued by the Congress would certainly effect what could not be done by other means. On this account indeed the Americans seem to have been under the greatest embarrassments. At the time when the colonies first engaged in the war they had no regular civil governments, established among them of force sufficient to command the collection of taxes, or to provide funds for the redemption of such bills of credit as their necessities obliged them to issue; in consequence of this, these bills increased far beyond the necessary sum, and in proportion to this redundancy of currency, its value necessarily sunk, insomuch, that by a regular progression from 1777 to 1780, it had at last come

down to one fortieth part of its nominal value. The effects of this depreciation were severely felt throughout all America, especially by those engaged in the military service, who being frequently in want of the most common necessaries, naturally became discontented. However, towards the close of the year 1780 the Congress began to put their finances on a better footing, so that the hopes of Britain from that quarter seem also to be at an end: indeed, even in the time of their greatest distress on this account, they seem never to have had the remotest thoughts of submission; since in the year 1780, when the value of their currency was at the lowest, they celebrated the 4th of July, the anniversary of their declaration of independence, with all the pomp they were able, and ever since have carried on the war with as great obduracy as before.

A Short Account of the PRINCIPAL DISCOVERIES made in the Voyages lately undertaken at the Expence of the British Government.

THOUGH ever since the revival of science in the 16th century geography hath been particularly studied, and encouraged by almost every nation, yet a great part of the globe hath hitherto remained unknown. The boldest navigators have never been able to approach either of the poles, and many parts of the vast Pacific Ocean remain unexplored. It was generally supposed, that a vast Southern continent had an existence which extended for an unknown length all the way from the South Pole. This supposition seems to have arisen chiefly from the greater cold of the Southern than the Northern regions, which was reckoned to be an effect of the freezing of the fresh water discharging itself into the ocean. To explore these unknown regions therefore, and for the advancement of true knowledge, several voyages have been undertaken at the command of his present Majesty. The first took place in 1764, when the Tamar and Dolphin were sent out under the command of Commodore Byron. They sailed from the Downs on the 21st of June, from whence they proceeded to the island of Madeira, where they arrived on the 13th of July. On the 13th of September they arrived at Rio de Janeiro; they afterwards visited the coast of Patagonia, and in January 1765 took possession of Falkland's Islands in the name of his Britannic Majesty. In June following Commodore Byron discovered two islands within about four leagues of each other, to which he gave the name of *King George's Islands*. They were both inhabited, and the last of these islands visited by him was in latitude $14^{\circ} 41' S.$; longitude $149^{\circ} 15' W.$ He afterwards steered Westward, and at the distance of about eight-and-forty leagues from King George's Islands discovered another inhabited island, about twenty leagues in length, to which he gave the name of *the Prince of Wales's Island*. He also discovered another island, to which he gave the name of *the Duke of York's Island*. He afterwards proceeded to Batavia, from thence to

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the Cape of Good Hope, and from thence to England. Commodore Byron arrived in the Downs, in the Dolphin, on the 9th of May 1766, having been somewhat more than two-and-twenty months in his voyage round the world.

In the month of August following the Dolphin was again sent out, under the command of Captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by Captain Carteret, in prosecution of the same general design of making discoveries in the Southern hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together till they came within sight of the South Sea, at the Western entrance of the strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June 1767 Captain Wallis discovered an island, about four miles long, and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitsun-Island*, it being discovered on Whitsun-eve. Its latitude is $19^{\circ} 26' S.$ and its longitude $137^{\circ} 56' W.$ The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Island*. The inhabitants of this island, Captain Wallis says, were of a middle stature, and dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth, or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude $19^{\circ} 18' S.$; longitude $138^{\circ} 4' W.$ In the space of a few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of *Egmont Island*, *Gloucester Island*, *Cumberland Island*, *Prince William Henry's Island*, and *Osnaburgh Island*.

On the 19th of the same month he discovered the island of *Otaheite*, or *King George the Third's Island*. It is situated between the 17th degree 28 minutes, and the 17th degree 53 minutes, South latitude; and between the 149th degree 11 minutes, and the 149th degree 39 minutes, West longitude. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary, for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. The soil, is remarkably rich and fertile, except upon the very tops of the ridges. It is watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, which render it exceedingly pleasant. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the sea is in few places more than a mile and a-half broad, and this, together with some of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis staid some time in this island, and after him Captain Cook in the *Endeavour* visited it in 1769, at which time a very accurate survey of the island was made by himself, Dr Solander, and Joseph Banks Esqr; who accompanied him.

Some parts of the island of Otaheite are very populous, and it is computed, that the whole island could furnish near 7000 fighting men. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior size, but handsome,

handsome, and very amorous, and indeed generally extremely licentious. Their clothing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as coconuts, bananas, bread fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruits. The hogs and poultry are more scarce, and they have plenty of fish. Their houses, those which are of a middling size, are of an oblong square, about 24 feet long, and eleven wide, with a shelving roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The utmost height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being inclosed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats; and upon these they sit in the day, and sleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and those they use are made of stone, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running water three times every day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels.

After Captain Wallis had quitted the island of *Otaheite*, he discovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another island about six miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders's Island*; and, on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Island*. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named *Wallis's Island*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February 1768, and his ship anchored safely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret in the *Swallow*, after he had parted with Captain Wallis in the *Dolphin*, having passed through the strait of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of Mafauero, he discovered, on the 2d of July 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Island*. It lies in latitude $23^{\circ} 2' S.$; longitude $133^{\circ} 21' W.$ and about 2 thousand leagues to the Westward of the continent of America. The 11th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of *the Bishop of Osnaburgh's Island*. The next day, he discovered two other small islands, which he called *the Duke of Gloucester's Islands*. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Islands*; and also three others, which he named *Gower's Island*, *Simpson's Island*, and *Carteret's Island*. On the 24th of the same month he discovered *Sir Charles Hardy's Island*, which lies in latitude $4^{\circ} 50' S.$ and the next day *Winchelsea's Island*, which is distant about ten leagues, in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards discovered several other islands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March 1769.

At the close of the year 1767 it was resolved, by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to send persons into some part of the South Sea, to observe a transit of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk, which, according to astronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769; and that the islands called *Marquesas de Mendoza*,

or those of Rotterdam, or Amsterdam, were the properest places then known for making such observation. In consequence of these resolutions, it was recommended to his Majesty, in a memorial from the Society, dated February 1768, that he would be pleased to order such an observation to be made; upon which his Majesty signified to the Lords Commissioners of the admiralty his pleasure, that a ship should be provided to carry such observers as the Society should think fit to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark of three hundred and seventy tons was prepared for that purpose. It was named the *Endeavour*, and commanded by Captain James Cook, who was soon after, by the Royal Society, appointed, with Mr Charles Green, a gentleman who had been long assistant to Dr Bradley at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, to observe the transit. But while this vessel was getting ready for her expedition Captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by Lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this astronomical observation, he, by letter, dated on board the *Dolphin* the 18th of May 1768, the day before he landed at Hastings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the island of Otaheite: the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in answer to an application from the admiralty, to be informed whither they would have their observers sent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook set sail from Plymouth, in the *Endeavour*, on the 26th of August 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, Esqr. and Dr Solander. They made no discovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Island, Two Groups, Bird Island, and Chain Island; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April 1769. During their stay at that island, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and on the fourth of June the whole passage of the planet Venus over the sun's disk was observed by them with great advantage; and by means of these and other observations of the transit of this planet, the science of astronomy is said to have received a considerable advancement, and the distance between the earth and the sun to be determined with greater certainty than before. After his departure from Otaheite, Captain Cook discovered and visited the Society Isles and Oheteroa, and thence proceeded to the South till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes; longitude 147 degrees 29 minutes, West; and afterwards made an accurate survey of the coast of New Zealand. In November he discovered a chain of islands which he named *Barrier Islands*. He afterwards proceeded to *New Holland*, a country of much larger extent than any other that does not bear the name of a continent, it extending from the 11th to the 38th degree of South latitude, and the length of the East and North-East coast, along which Captain Cook sailed, reduced to a straight line, is no less than twenty-seven degrees, which amount to near two thousand miles, so that its square surface must be much larger than all Europe. To the Eastern coast of New Holland Captain Cook gave the name of *New South Wales*. From thence he proceeded to New Guinea *, and in

* New Guinea, till these late voyages of discovery, was thought to be the North coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but

September 1770 arrived at the island of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June 1771.

Soon after Captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was resolved to equip two ships, to complete the discovery of the Southern hemisphere. Accordingly the Resolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpose; the first was commanded by Captain Cook, the same able navigator who had successfully performed the preceding voyage, and the latter by Captain Tobias Furneaux. They sailed from Plymouth sound on the 13th of July 1772, and on the 29th of the same month arrived at the island of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February 1773 arrived at New Zealand, having sought in vain for a Southern continent. In that month the Resolution and the Adventure separated, in consequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's sound, on the 18th of May following. In August they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they discovered Hervey's Island. On the second of October they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Islands; and about the close of that month the Resolution and the Adventure were separated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Resolution, in order to make discoveries in the Southern polar regions, but was stopped in his progress by the ice in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes South; longitude 106 degrees 54 minutes West. He then proceeded to Easter Island, where he arrived in March 1774, as he did also in the same month at the Marquesas Islands. He afterwards discovered four islands which he named *Palliser's Islands*; and again steered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made some stay, and also visited the neighbouring isles. In August he came to the *New Hebrides*, some of which were first discovered by him. After leaving these isles, he steered to the Southward a few days, and discovered an island which is supposed to be the largest in the South Pacific Ocean, except New Zealand. To this island, which is barren, and thinly inhabited, he gave the name of *New Caledonia*. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth is not considerable, nor any where exceeding ten leagues. It extends from the latitude of 19 degrees 37 minutes, to 22 degrees 30 minutes, S.; and from the longitude of 163 degrees 37 minutes, to 167 degrees 14 minutes E. After having surveyed the South-West coast of this island, Captain Cook steered again for New Zealand*, in order to refresh his crew, and put his ship into a condition to encounter the dangers attending the navigation in the high Southern latitudes. Directing his course to the South and East, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees six minutes South, longitude 138 degrees 11 minutes East, he discovered a strait between them, which ran North-East, and sailed through it; and New Guinea is now found to be a long, narrow island.

* New Zealand is now known to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait, or passage, called *Cook's Strait*, which is about four or five leagues broad.

degrees 56 minutes West, without meeting with any continent; Captain Cook gave up all hopes of discovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a resolution to steer directly for the West entrance of the straits of Magellan, with a view of coasting and surveying the easternmost or South-side of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 53 or 55, and steering nearly East, he arrived off the Western mouth of the straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in this new route. In January 1775 he discovered a large and dreary island, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia*. He afterwards discovered various capes and elevated snow-clad coasts, to the most Southern part of which he gave the name of the *Southern Thule*, as being the nearest land to that pole which has yet been discovered. In February, he discovered *Sandwich Land*, and several islands covered with snow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England in the *Adventure* a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope, without making any remarkable discovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by some of the savages of New Zealand; so that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exist; and, indeed, in the course of these voyages of discovery, other evidence appeared of this fact.

With regard to the Northern hemisphere, the principal discoveries were made by the Russians as far back as the year 1747. Of all other nations indeed they had the best opportunity, being possessed of all that boundless tract in the Northern part of Asia called Siberia, which extends quite to its North-Eastern extremity. They discovered a chain of islands stretching between the continents of Asia and America. They pretended even to have discovered the coasts of the latter, which lay at no great distance from those of Asia. These accounts, however, were contradicted by subsequent voyages; but to ascertain the matter beyond a doubt, Captain Cook was once more sent out with orders to discover the North-Eastern coasts of Asia, and the North-Western ones of America. He accomplished the purposes of his voyage with that activity and skill which had so remarkably distinguished him on other occasions; but was unfortunately killed at an island in the South-Sea, in an encounter with a parcel of savages. Of the manner of his death we have had different accounts, none of which perhaps is to be altogether depended upon, and no authentic account of his discoveries hath yet appeared.

In 1773 a voyage towards the North Pole was undertaken by the Honourable Commodore Phipps now Lord Mulgrave. He sailed Northward on the meridian of London till they arrived at the latitude of somewhat more than 81 degrees, but no discoveries of any consequence were made. In some essays, however, since published by the Honourable Daines Barrington Esqr. the course which they kept in this voyage is blamed, and he supposes, that by keeping more to the Eastward, they might have easily got clear of the ice, and sailed even to the Pole itself; of the possibility of which he brings several instances. His reasons, however, seem to be pretty well answered, though indirectly, in Forster's Observations.

Indeed there seems now to be but little room for useful discovery in

in any part of the globe. A parliamentary reward is offered to those who shall approach within five degrees of the North Pole, and a much greater one for those who shall arrive at the Pole itself. This seems to be with a view of obtaining a shorter passage to the East Indies; but though this passage should be obtained for once, it seems by no means probable that it will ever be navigable for common trading vessels: at any rate, it must be so uncertain, that it could never be depended upon. This passage to the East Indies hath been attempted in three different ways: 1. By the Straits of Davis, or Hudson, in North America: 2. Along the Northern coasts of Asia, and 3. By the Pole itself. The two first methods are generally allowed to be impracticable. The continent of America seems not to have any outlet through it, nor can any plausible reason be adduced for supposing that it has one. The Northern coasts of Asia are invironed with ice which never thaws, and the repeated attempts of the Russians, from the mouth of the river Lena to the East, and from Kamtschatka to the West, have shewn that the difficulties of this voyage can by no means be surmounted. Some time ago a Samoied was hired by the Russian court to travel over the ice itself as far as possible to the Northward, in a carriage drawn by dogs, according to the custom of the country. He set out accordingly, and continued on his journey for a fortnight, during which time he computed that he had travelled over the frozen ocean for 400 miles; but found it impossible to go farther, because the ice, which till then had been pretty level, now rose in dreadful mountains. He climbed up to the top of one of these, but could discover nothing but prospects of the same kind, without any opening. This seems to be discouraging to the project which some British philosophers, according to Mr Barrington, had undertaken, namely of travelling over the ice to the Pole, and returning by the same way.

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A NEW

NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

REMARKABLE EVENTS and INVENTIONS,

A. L. S. O.

The AERA, COUNTRY, and WRITINGS, of Learned Men.

The whole comprehending the Analysis, or Outlines, of Universal
History, from the Creation to this time.

Ref. Christ.

- 4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.
3349 Noah's deluge, which destroyed the whole world, that patriarch and his family excepted. Continued a year.
2246 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity; upon which God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.
2217 Babylon built by Nimrod.
2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt.
2059 Niros, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria.
1856 The kingdom of Argos in Greece, begins under Inachus.
1822 Letters of the alphabet invented by Memnon, an Egyptian.
1764 Deluge of Ogyges, which overflowed all Attica.
1635 Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2369 years.
1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.
1556 Cereops brings a colony of Saltes from Egypt into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens in Greece.
1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.
1534 Dancing invented by the Curetes.
1532 Court of Areopagus instituted at Athens.
1529 Deucalion's deluge.
1506 The flute and harmony in music invented by Hypagnio of Phrygia.
1493 Cadmus carried the Phoenician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.
1491 Moses, by the divine command and assistance, delivers the Israelites from the oppression of Pharaoh, and brings them out of Egypt into the wilderness.
1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danocus.
1454 Ale and wine invented by Bacchus.
1453 The first Olympic games, celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.
1451 The Israelites, after sojourning in the wilderness forty years, are led, under Joshua, into the land of Canaan.
1432 Iron found on Mount Ida by the Daetyles; supposed to be melted from its ore by the accidental burning of the woods.
1399 The Eleusinian mysteries, in honour of Ceres, instituted at Athens.
1263 The Argonauts carry off the golden fleece from Colchis.
1252 Writing first taught to the Latins by Europa, daughter of Agenor king of Phoenicia.
1249 Poetry invented by Orpheus.
1235 Helen carried off by Theseus when only nine years of age; and in 1219 by Paris, son of Priam king of Troy, after she had been married to Menelaus, king of Sparta.
1226 Nemean games instituted by Adrastus, in honour of Jupiter and Hercules.

- 1218 The Trojan war commences on account of the rape of Helen by Paris.
 1208 Troy taken, plundered, and burnt. Aeneas flies into Italy.
 1069 Sparta built by Eurystas, and named after his daughter. The republic was called Lacedæmon, from his wife.
 1048 David is sole king of Israel.
 1004 The temple is solemnly dedicated by Solomon.
 900 The empire of Syria begins to be powerful and formidable to Israel.
 895 Weights and measures invented by Phydron tyrant of Argos.
 894 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.
 869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by Queen Dido.
 814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
 786 Gallies with three banks of oars invented by the Corinthians.
 767 A general plague all over the world.
 753 Acra of the building of Rome in Italy, by Romulus, first king of the Romans.
 750 Knights instituted by the Romans.
 740 The Syrian empire destroyed by that of Assyria.
 720 Samaria taken, after three years siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished by Samsar, king of Assyria, who carries the ten tribes into captivity.
 700 Iambic verse introduced by Archilochus.
 658 Byzantium, (now Constantinople,) built by a colony of Athenians.
 604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phoenicians sailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
 600 Thales of Miletus, the chief of the seven sages of Greece, travels into Egypt, whence, being instructed by the priests, he carries home some knowledge of geometry, and the Egyptian theology.
 597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive, by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.
 594 The Pythian games established by the Amphictyons at Delphos.
 587 The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of 18 months.
 562 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable scaffold.
 559 Cyrus the first king of Persia.
 547 Anaxamander, disciple of Thales, dies, who made the first map of any reputation.
 538 The kingdom of Babylon finished; that city being taken by Cyrus, who in 536 gives an edict for the return of the Jews.
 535 The first tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Theſpis.
 526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library first founded.
 525 Cambyſes conquers Egypt.
 519 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.
 509 Tarquin, the seventh and last king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates.
 508 Singing in chorusses invented at Athens.
 504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave rise to the Persian invasion of Greece.
 486 Prizes for tragedy instituted, and the first gained by Eſchylus.
 481 Xerxes the Great, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.
 470 Another prize for tragedy gained by Sophocles.
 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews and the vessels of gold and silver, &c.
 454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.
 451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.
 442 A third prize for tragedy gained by Euripides.
 441 The battering ram, testudo, and other military engines, invented by Artemon of Clazomenæ.
 430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time.
 Malachi the last of the prophets.
 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the soul, a state of rewards and punishments: for which and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statue of brass.
 356 The celebrated temple of Diana at Ephesus burnt by Erostratus, to perpetuate his name.
 344 The true celestial system first taught by Nicetas, philosopher of Syracuse.
 331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Persia, and other nations of Asia.

B. C.

- 333 Alexander dies at Babylon, and after much confusion his brother Aridaeus is chosen king, on which several of his generals revolt.
- 318 King Aridaeus and his wife murdered by Olympias Alexander's mother, who is soon after put to death by Cassander. All the wives, children, brethren, and even sisters, of Alexander himself, are put to death by one or other, and not a relation of his left alive.
- 313 Ptolemy, one of his generals, founds a new empire in Egypt.
- 312 Seleucus, another of his generals, founds an empire in Syria.
- Water hour-glasses invented by Scipio Nafica.
- 300 The kingdom of Pontus is formed out of that of Alexander; an academy is founded at Alexandria, the famous library furnished with books, and anatomy is for the first time publicly taught.
- 291 Painting first introduced at Rome by Q. Fabius, thence surnamed Pictor.
- 285 Dionysius of Alexandria, began his astronomical era on Monday June 26, being the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days 5 hours 49 minutes.
- 284 Pharos, the celebrated light-house at Alexandria, erected by Ptolemy.
- Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters, to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the *Septuagint*.
- 276 The first society of grammarians, or critics.
- 269 The first coining of silver at Rome.
- 264 The first Punic war begins, and continues twenty-three years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles composed.
- 260 The Romans first concern themselves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.
- 250 The Parthian empire founded by Arsaces.
- 237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.
- 218 The second Punic war begins and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles; but being denied proper support by an infamous faction at home, he was rendered unable to conquer Italy, though he remained in the country for 17 years.
- 190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and from the spoils of Antiochus brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.
- 168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
- 167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
- Antiochus Epiphanes cruelly persecutes the Jews, and takes away the daily sacrifice at Jerusalem.
- 164 The Jewish worship restored by Judas Maccabeus.
- 163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.
- 146 Carthage, the rival to Rome, is razed to the ground by the Romans. The same year Corinth was also destroyed; and a new metal, called Corinthian brass, said to be produced from the melting of the concealed treasures of the inhabitants when the city was set on fire. This metal could not be imitated by art, and was sold at a higher price than gold.
- 130 Parchment first invented by Attalus III. king of Pergamus.
- 101 Marius defeats the Teutones and Cimbri with incredible slaughter, inasmuch that their bones were used for fences in the neighbouring country for several years afterwards.
- 83 The famous temple of Delphos destroyed by fire, and the oracle ceases.
- 80 Sylla becomes perpetual dictator of Rome.
- 52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
- 47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter, thro' his own misconduct, is defeated.
- The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
- 45 The Calendar reformed by Julius Cæsar, who determined the length of the year to be 365 days 6 hours, and thus introduced the computation since known by the name of Old Style.
- 44 Cæsar, the first of the Roman Emperors, assassinated in the Senate-house.
- 42 Brutus, concerned in the assassination of Cæsar, and head of the republican party, loses the battle of Philippi, and kills himself.
- 31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Anthony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.

Ref. C.

- 30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Anthony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.
- 27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman Emperor.
- 22 Pantomime dancers first introduced on the Roman stage.
- 8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
- The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace.
- JESUS CHRIST born Monday, December 25.

A. Chr.

- 12 _____ Disputes with the Doctors in the temple.
- 27 _____ baptized in the wilderness by John.
- 33 _____ crucified on Friday, April 3. at three o'clock, P. M.
- _____ his resurrection on Sunday, April 5.
- _____ his ascension on Thursday May 14.
- 40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to his followers.
- 43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.
- 45 Insurance of ships first practised.
- 49 London is founded by the Romans; and surrounded by them with a wall, in 368, some parts of which are still observable.
- 51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.
- 52 The council of the apostles at Jerusalem.
- 59 The Emperor Nero persecutes the Druids in Britain.
- 61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, a governor of Britain.
- 64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians.
- 70 Titus, the Roman general, takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.
- 83 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, to protect the civilized Britains from the incursions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus on the Grampian hills; and first sails round Britain, which he discovers to be an island.
- 96 John the Evangelist and Divine wrote his Revelation; and supernatural intercourse between God and man ceases.
- 100 Indulgences and dispensations instituted by Pope Leo III.
- 119 The sign of the cross first made use of by Christians, to distinguish them from the Pagans.
- 121 The Caledonians re-conquer from the Romans all the southern part of Scotland; upon which the Emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcastle and Carlisle; but this also proving ineffectual, Pollus Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 144, repairs Agricola's forts, which he joins by a wall four yards thick.
- 135 The second Jewish war ends, when they were all banished Judea.
- 152 The Emperor Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against the Christians.
- 217 The Septuagint found in a cask.
- 222 About this time the Roman empire begins to sink under its own weight; the Barbarians begin their irruptions, and the Goths have annual tribute not to molest the empire.
- 260 Valerius is taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, and stay'd alive.
- 274 Silk first brought from India; the manufactory of it introduced into Europe by some monks in 551; first worn by the clergy in England in 1534.
- 291 Two Emperors and two Cæsars march to defend the four quarters of the empire.
- 305 Celibacy, and a monastic life, first preached by St Antony in Egypt.
- 306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.
- 308 Cardinals first begin.
- 313 The tenth persecution ends, by an edict of Constantine, who favours the Christians and gives full liberty to their religion.
- 325 The first general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended against ARIUS, the founder of ARIANISM, where was composed the famous NICENE CREED.
- 328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is therefore called CONSTANTINOPLE.
- 331 _____ orders all the Heathen temples to be destroyed.
- 360 The first monastery founded in France by St Martin. A nunnery also founded there the same year.

- A. C.
- 362 The Roman emperor Julian, surnamed the APOSTATE, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
- 364 The Roman empire is divided into the eastern (Constantinople the capital) and western, (of which Rome continued to be the capital,) each being now under the government of different emperors.
- 400 Bells invented by bishop Paulinus, of Campagna.
- 404 The kingdom of Caledonia, or, Scotland, revives under Fergus.
- 406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, spread into France and Spain, by a concession of Honorius emperor of the West.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visi-Goths.
- 412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
- 420 The kingdom of France begins upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
- 426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain and never return; advising the Britons to arm in their own defence, and trust to their own valour.
- 446 The Britons, now left to themselves, are greatly harrassed by the Scots and Picts; upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, (which they entitle, *The Groans of the Britons*!) but receive no assistance from that quarter.
- 447 Attila, (surnamed The SCOURGE OF GOD,) with his Huns, ravage the Roman empire.
- 449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain against the Scots and Picts.
- 450 The drinking of healths introduced by Vortigern, and Rowena, daughter of Hengist, a Saxon prince.
- 455 The Saxons having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.
- 476 The western empire is finished 523 years after the battle of Pharsalia; upon the ruins of which several new states arise in Italy, and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned destroyed.
- 496 Clovis, king of France baptized, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.
- 509 Benefices first instituted.
- 513 Constantinople besieged by Vitalianus, whose fleet is burnt by a speculum of brass.
- 516 The computing of time by the Christian æra is introduced by Dionysius the monk.
- 529 The codes of Justinian, the eastern emperor, is published.
- 557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near fifty years.
- 578 Anchors of ships first forged.
- 581 Latin ceased to be spoken about this time in Italy.
- 596 Augustin, the monk, comes into England with forty others.
- 600 Feudal laws introduced into England.
- 605 Chancery Court of England instituted by Ethelbert.
- 606 Here begins the power of the Popes, by the concession of Phocas, emperor of the East.
- 622 Mahomet, the false prophet, flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 44th year of his age and 10th of his ministry; when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their descent. His followers compute their time from this æra, which, in Arabia, is called *Hegira*, i. e. the Flight.
- 637 Jerusalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
- 640 The first Christian altar erected in England.
- 640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by the Saracens, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omer, their caliph or prince.
- 653 The Saracens now extend their conquests on every side, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity.
- 659 Decision of differences by single combat introduced by the Lombards.
- 685 The Britons, after a brave struggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
- 713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
- 726 The controversy about images begins, and occasions many insurrections in the eastern empire.
- 748 The computing of years, from the birth of Christ, begins to be used in history.
- 749 The race of Abbas became caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.

- 751 Organs first introduced into the English churches.
- 762 The city of Bagdad, upon the Tigris, is made the capital of the caliphs, of the house of Abbas.
- 800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the Western Empire; gives the present names to winds and months; endeavours to restore learning into Europe, but mankind are not yet disposed for it, being solely engrossed in military enterprizes.
- 829 South Britain gets the name of England from King Egbert.
- 836 The Flemings trade to Scotland for fish.
- 838 The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth, which begins the second period of the Scottish history.
- 840 Transubstantiation first asserted.
- 867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
- 886 Lanthorns of scraped horn invented in England. Bricks first made and used in England the same year.
- 896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders, (against whom he fought 56 battles by sea and land,) composes his body of laws, divides England into counties, hundreds, tythings; erects county courts, and founds the university of Oxford about this time.
- 900 The first knight made by the sword of state.
- 915 The university of Cambridge founded.
- 936 The Saracen empire is divided, by usurpation, into seven kingdoms.
- 941 Arithmetic brought into Europe.
- 975 Pope Boniface VII. is deposed and banished for his crimes.
- 979 Coronation oath first used in England.
- Customs, or duties, on merchandise first imposed by Ethelred II.
- Juries first instituted in England.
- 991 The figures in Arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto used.
- 996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
- 999 Boleslaus, the first king of Poland.
- 1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in use; that of linen rags in 1170, the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford in 1588.
- 1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.
- 1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
- 1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets possession of England.
- 1012 Musical notes invented by Guido, a Benedictine friar.
- 1040 The Danes, after several engagements with various success, are, about this time, driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hostile manner.
- 1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
- 1043 The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, serving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) became formidable, and took possession of Persia.
- 1050 The great seal of England first used by Edward the Confessor.
- 1054 Leo IX. the first Pope that kept a standing army.
- 1056 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
- 1057 Malcom III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunfinane, and marries the princess Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling.
- 1066 Bows and arrows brought into England by William the Conqueror.
- The conquest of England by William (surnamed the Bastard) duke of Normandy in the battle of Hastings, where Harold is slain.
- 1070 William introduces the Feudal Law.
- 1074 Beheading introduced into England as an honourable death.
- 1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the Pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German bishops. Henry, in penance, walks barefooted to the Pope in the end of January.
- 1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.
- 1078 Jurisdiction of the Cinque Ports vested in Barons by William I.
- 1080 Doomday-book began to be compiled by order of William, from a survey of all the estates in England, and finished in 1086.
- The Tower of London built by William, to curb his English subjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the Saxon, or English language; are protected by Malcom, and have lands given them.
- 1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard pressed by the Spaniards, call to their assist-

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

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- 1091 tance Joseph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors get possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land is begun under several Christian princes, to drive the Infidels from Jerusalem.
- 1099 Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders, who massacre 70,000 persons.
- 1110 Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reside as a subject.
- 1118 The order of Knights Templars instituted, to defend the sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers.
- 1127 Church-wardens and overseers in every parish appointed by the synod of London.
- 1150 Civil law revived at Bologna by Wernerus. Chymistry introduced into Europe by the Moors. Sugar first brought into Europe from Asia.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
- 1163 London bridge, consisting of 19 small arches, first built of stone.
- 1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
- 1172 Henry II. King of England (and first of the Plantagenets) takes possession of Ireland.
- 1176 England is divided, by Henry, into six circuits, and justice is dispensed by itinerant judges.
- 1180 Glass windows begin to be used in private houses in England.
- 1181 The laws of England are digested about this time by Glanville.
- 1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the stirrups of his saddle when he mounted his horse.
- 1186 The great conjunction of the sun and moon and all the planets in Libra, happened in September.
- 1189 Robin Hood, the famous robber, begins his excursions, which continue 58 years.
- 1192 The battle of Ascalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's army, consisting of 300,000 combatants.
- 1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* first used as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
- 1197 Jerusalem finally conquered by the Turks under Saladin.
- 1199 The kings of England first speak in the plural number.
- 1200 Indulgences publicly sold by the Roman Pontiffs.
- Chimnies begin to be used in England.
- Surnames begin to be used first among the nobility.
- 1204 Auricular confession introduced.
- 1207 The first doctor's degree conferred in England.
- 1208 London incorporated, and obtained their first charter for electing their Lord Mayor, and other magistrates, from king John.
- 1209 Bull-baiting introduced into England as an amusement.
- 1215 Magna Charta is signed by king John and the barons of England.
- Court of common pleas established.
- 1227 The Tartars, a new race of heroes, under Gingis Kan, emerge from the northern parts of Asia, over-run all the Saracen empire, and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and desolation wherever they march.
- 1232 The first commercial company, intitled The Steel-yard Company, instituted in England.
- 1233 The Inquisition begins.
- The houses of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, begin to be covered with tile.
- 1240 Tin-mines discovered in Germany. Those of Britain were formerly the only ones known in Europe.
- 1241 Commercial league of the Hans Towns formed.
- 1251 The first poet, Laureat, in England.
- 1253 Linen first manufactured in England.
- The famous astronomical tables are composed by Alonso, king of Castile.
- 1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finishes the empire of the Saracens.
- 1261 Ordeal-trials abolished in England.
- 1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 sail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III. and thereby recovers the western islands.
- 1264 The Commons of England first summoned to parliament.
- 1269 The Hamburg Company incorporated in England.
- 1272 Belles Lettres revived in Europe by Brunetto Latini.
- 1273 The empire of the present Austrian family begins in Germany.

- 1274 A remarkable rot among the sheep, which continued for 25 years.
- 1276 Coroners for every county appointed in England.
- 1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed, by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.
- 1283 Edward II. born at Carnarvon, is the first prince of Wales.
- 1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland dies, and that kingdom is disputed by twelve candidates, who submit their claims to the arbitration of Edward, king of England; which occasions a long and desolating war between both nations.
- 1290 Wind-mills first known in Europe.
- 1293 A regular succession of English parliaments begin, being the twenty-second of Edward I.
- 1298 The present Turkish empire begins in Bithynia, under Ottoman. Silver-hafted knives, spoons, and cups, a great luxury. Tallow candles so great a luxury, that splinters of wood were used for lights. Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.
- 1302 The mariner's compass invented, or improved by Givius, of Naples.
- 1307 The beginning of the Swiss cantons.
- 1308 The Popes remove to Avignon in France, for 70 years.
- 1309 A public weighing engine set up in London.
- 1310 Lincoln's inn society established. Crockery ware invented at Faenza in Italy.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, in which the English are defeated with prodigious slaughter, and which establishes Robert on the throne of Scotland. The cardinals set fire to the conclave and separate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
- 1320 Gold first coined in Christendom.
- 1335 Titles of Nobility first granted by letters patent.
- 1336 Two Brabant weavers settle at York, which, says Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects.
- 1337 The first comet whose course is described with an astronomical exactness.
- 1340 Gun-powder and guns first invented by Swartz, a monk at Cologn; in 1346 Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which gained him the battle of Cressy. Oil painting first made use of by John Vanneck. Heralds college instituted in England.
- 1344 Gold first coined in England. The first creation of titles by patents, used by Edward III.
- 1346 The battle of Durham, in which David, king of Scots, is taken prisoner.
- 1349 The Order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and consists of 26 knights. The art of gauging invented.
- 1350 The Turks first enter Europe.
- 1352 The money in Scotland, till now, the same as in England.
- 1354 The battle of Poitiers, in which king John of France, and his son, are taken prisoners by Edward the Black Prince.
- 1357 Coals first brought to London.
- 1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
- 1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English as a favour of Edward III. to his people. John Wickliffe, an Englishman, begins to call in question the doctrines of the church of Rome about this time, whose followers are called LOLLARDS.
- 1386 The first Lord High Admiral of England appointed by Richard II. A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands established in London. Windsor castle built by Edward III.
- 1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotspur and the Earl of Douglas.
- 1390 The method of pickling herrings discovered.
- 1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
- 1399 Westminster Abbey rebuilt and enlarged.—Westminster Hall, the same year. Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed in 1725; consisting of 38 knights.
- 1404 Hats for men first invented.
- 1410 The Guildhall of London built.
- 1411 The University of St Andrews, in Scotland, founded.
- 1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
- 1423 The siege of Orleans, the first blow of the English power in France.

- A.C.
 1440 PRINTING invented by L. Koster at Harlaem in Holland.
 1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
 The sea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the eastern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Constantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
 1454 The University of Glasgow, in Scotland, founded.
 1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
 1462 The first book printed.
 1467 Sheep imprudently exported from England to Spain, which produced the fine wool for which the latter country is celebrated.
 1470 The use of plaister of Paris for moulds and figures discovered.
 1477 The University of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
 1483 Richard III. King of England, and last of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the Houses of Lancaster and York, after a contest of 30 years, and the loss of 100,000 men.
 1486 Henry establishes fifty yeoman of the guards; the first standing army.
 1490 Maps and globes introduced into England by Bartholomew Columbus.
 1491 William Grocyn introduces the study of the Greek language into England.
 The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely subdued by Ferdinand, and become subjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are all observed by the Spaniards, whose clergy use the Inquisition, in all its tortures; and, in 1609, near one million of Moors are driven from Spain to the opposite coast of Africa, from whence they originally came.
 1492 America first discovered by Columbus, a Genoese, in the service of Spain.
 1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
 South America discovered by Americus Vesputius, from whom it has its name.
 1499 North America ditto, for Henry VII. king of England, by Cabot, a Venetian.
 1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.
 1505 Shillings first coined in England.
 1510 Hats first manufactured at London.
 1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. king of Scotland, is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
 1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation in Germ. and Zuinglius in Switzerland. Egypt is conquered by the Turks.
 1518 Magellan, in the service of Spain, first discovers the Straits of that name in South America.
 1520 Henry VIII. king of England, for his writings in favour of Popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the Pope.
 1521 Muskets introduced into the English army.
 1525 Hops first brought into England.
 1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spire in Germany.
 1534 The Reformation takes place in England, under Henry VIII.
 1537 Religious houses dissolved by Henry VIII.
 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorized; the present translation finished in 1611.
 About this time Canon begin to be used in ships.
 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king; first worn in England by Queen Elizabeth in 1561; the steel frame for weaving invented by the Rev. Mr. Lee of John's College, Cambridge, in 1589.
 Pins first used in England, before which time the Ladies used skewers.
 1544 Good lands let in England at one shilling per acre.
 1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
 1546 First law in England establishing the interest of money at 10 per cent.
 1549 Lord Lieutenants of counties instituted in England.
 1550 Horse Guards instituted in England.
 Bank of Venice instituted. Journals of the House of Peers first kept.
 1554 The art of starching linen first introduced into England.
 The first English ship sailed to Russia.
 1555 The Russian Company established in England.
 1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.

- 1558 A. C. The Reformation in England completed by Queen Elizabeth.
 1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
 1563 The Slave trade from Guinea begun by John Hawkins.
 Knives first made in London.
 1565 Tobacco introduced into England.
 1566 Needles first made in England.
 1569 Royal Exchange first built.
 1572 The great massacre of Protestants at Paris.
 Masks, Fans, Muffs, and False Hair for women, formerly invented by the Protestants of Italy, brought at this time from France to England.
 1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.
 English East-India Company incorporated:—established in 1600.
 ——— Turkey Company incorporated.
 1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator.
 Parochial register first appointed in England.
 1582 Pope Gregory introduces the N. Style in Italy; the 5. Oct. being counted the 15.
 1586 Potatoes first brought into England.
 1587 Mary Queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Eliz. after 18 years imprisonment.
 Duelling with small swords introduced into England.
 1588 The Spanish Armada destroyed by Drake and other English admirals.
 Chatham Chest, the first charity for disabled or superannuated mariners, instituted by Queen Elizabeth.—Fire ships first used in the English navy at the engagement with the Span. Armada.—Edict of Nantz revoked by Lewis XIV.
 Henry IV. passes the edict of Nantz, tolerating the Protestants.
 1589 Coaches first introd. into Engl.; hackney-act 1693; increased to 2000 in 1770.
 1590 The first sail-cloth made in England.
 Band of pensioners instituted in England.
 1591 Trinity College, Dublin, founded.
 1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
 1598 Taffeties first made in England.
 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
 1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and first of the Stuarts) as her successor; which makes both the kingdoms take the name of Great Britain.
 The word SACRED added to the titles of the English monarchs.
 1605 The gun-powder plot discovered at Westminster; being a project of the Roman Catholics to blow up the King and both Houses of Parliament.
 1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
 1608 Galileo of Florence first discovers the satellites about the planet Saturn, by the telescope, then just invented in Holland.
 1609 Mulberry-trees first planted in England.
 1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris, by Ravallac, a priest.
 1611 Barons first created in England, by James I.
 1614 Napier of Marcheston, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
 The first English ship sent to Greenland.
 1616 The first permanent settlement in Virginia.
 1619 W. Harvey, an Englishman, confirms the doctrine of the circulation of the blood, which had been first broached by Serenius, a French phys. in 1555.
 1620 The broad silk manufactory from raw silk introduced into England.
 1621 Microscopes invented at Naples, and in Holland.
 New England planted by the Puritans.
 1625 King James dies, and is succeeded by his son Charles I.
 The island of Barbadoes, the first Engl. settlement in the W. Indies, is planted.
 1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Protestants in Germany, is killed.
 1634 The first linen manufactory established in Ireland.
 1635 Province of Maryland planted by Lord Baltimore.
 Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
 1640 King Charles disobliges his Scottish subjects, on which their army, under General Lesley, enters England, and takes Newcastle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.
 The massacre in Ireland, when 40,000 English Protestants were killed.
 1642 K. Char. impeaches five refractory members, which begins the civil war in Engl.
 1643 42 xcel on beer, ale, &c. first imposed by Parliament.

- A. C.
 1649 Charles I. beheaded by Cromwell, at Whitehall, 30th January, aged forty-nine.
 1654 Cromwell assumes the Protectorship.
 1655 The English, under Admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
 1658 Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the Protectorship by his son Richard.
 1660 King Charles II. is restored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
 The people of Denmark, being oppressed by their nobles, surrender their privileges to Frederick III. who becomes absolute.
 General post-office instituted in London.
 1663 Fire engines for raising water invented.
 Carolina planted.—Divided into two separate governments in 1728.
 1664 Sect of the Quakers founded by George Fox.
 1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 87,000 persons.
 The first Royal Gazette published in London.
 1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2. and continued three days, in which were destroyed 13,000 houses, and 400 streets.
 Tea first used in England.
 1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
 1668 ——— of Aix la Chapelle.
 St James's Park planted, and made a thorough-fare for public use, by Char. II.
 1670 Muslin first worn in England.
 The English Hudson's Bay Company incorporated.
 1672 Lewis IV. over-runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch opened their sluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their settlements in the East Indies.
 African Company established.
 1676 Callicoe-printing first set on foot in England.
 1678 The peace of Nimiguen.
 The habeas corpus act passed.
 1680 A great comet appeared, and, from its nearness to the earth, alarmed the inhabitants. It continued visible from Nov. 3. to March 9.
 William Penn, a quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.
 1683 Penny-post instituted at London.
 India stock sold from 300 l. to 300 l. for a share of 100 l.
 1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is succeeded by his brother James II.
 The Duke of Monmouth, natural son to Charles II. raises a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgmore, and beheaded.
 The edict of Nantz is revoked by Lewis XIV. and the Protestants are greatly distressed.
 1687 The palace of Versailles, near Paris, is finished by Lewis XIV.
 1688 The revolution in Great Britain begins Nov. 5. King James abdicates, and retires to France December 3.
 King William and Queen Mary, daughter and son-in-law to James, are proclaimed Feb. 16.
 Viscount Dundee stands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by General Mackay at the battle of Killycrankie, upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, disperse.
 Bounties granted on the exportation of British commodities.
 1689 The land tax passed in England.
 The toleration act passed in ditto.
 Several bishops are deprived for not taking the oaths to K. William.
 William Fuller, who pretended to prove the Prince of Wales spurious, was voted by the H. of Commons to be a notorious cheat, imposter, and false accuser.
 1690 The battle of Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland.
 1691 The war in Ireland finished, by the surrender of Limerick to William.
 1692 The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by Admiral Russel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
 Hanover made an electorate of the empire.
 1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muskets first used by the French against the Confederates in the battle of Turin.
 The Duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
 Bank of England established by King William.
 The first public lottery was drawn this year.
 Massacre of Highlanders at Glencoe by King William's army,

A.D.

- 1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
Stamp duties instituted in England.
- 1696 The peace of Ryswick.
- 1699 The Scots settled a colony at the Isthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
- 1700 Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign.
King James II. dies at St Germaine, in the 68th year of his age.
- 1701 Prussia erected into a kingdom.
Society for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts established.
- 1702 K. William dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by Q. Anne, daughter to James II. who, with the Emperor and States Gen. renews the war against Fr. and Spain.
- 1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Rooke.
The battle of Blenheim, won by the Duke of Marlborough and allies, against the French.
The Court of Exchequer instituted in England.
Prussian blue invented at Berlin.
- 1706 The treaty of Union betwixt England and Scotland, signed July 23.
The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1707 An extraordinary fall of Rices in London, so that they covered the cloathes of passengers, and the impression of peoples feet were visible on them as on snow.
The first British parliament.
- 1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by General Stanhope.
The battle of Oudenarde, won by Marlborough and the allies.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the Duke of Savoy.
- 1709 Peter the Great, Czar of Musc. defeats Char. XII. at Pultua, who flies to Turkey.
The battle of Malplaquet, won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig ministry for others more favourable to the interest of her brother, the late Pretender.
The cathedral church of St Paul's, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wrenn, in thirty-seven years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.
The English South-Sea Company begins.
- 1712 Duke Hamilton and Lord Mohun killed in a duel in Hyde Park.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Britain, and Hudson's Bay in North America, are yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were also confirmed to the said crown by this treaty.
- 1714 Queen Anne dies, at the age of 50, and is succeeded by George I.
Interest reduced to five per cent.
- 1715 Lewis XIV. dies, and is succeeded by his great grandson, Lewis XV. the late king of France.
The rebellion in Scotland, begins in September under the Earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriff muir, and surrender of Preston, both in November, when the rebels disperse.
- 1716 The Pretender married the Princess Sobieska, grand-daughter of John Sobieski, late king of Poland.
An act passed for Septennial parliaments.
Privileges of the two Houses of Convocation taken away.
- 1719 The Mississippi scheme at its full height in France.
Lombe's silk throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby, takes up one-eighth of a mile; one water wheel moves the rest, and, in 24 hours, it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine silk thread.
The South Sea scheme in England begins April 7. was at its height at the end of June, and quite sunk about September 20.
- 1727 K. Geo. dies, in the 68. year of his age, and is succeeded by his only son Geo. II. Inoculation for the small pox first tried on criminals with success.
Russia, formerly a dukedom, is now established as an empire.
- 1732 Kouli Khan usurps the Persian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with two hundred and thirty-one millions Sterling.
Several public spirited gentlemen begin the settlements of Georgia in N. Amer.
- 1736 Capt. Porteous having ordered his soldiers to fire upon the populace at an execution of a smuggler, is himself hanged by the mob at Edinburgh.
- 1738 Westminster Bridge, consisting of 15 arches, begun; finished in 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by parliament.
- 1739 Letters of marque issued out in Britain against Spain July 21. and war declared October 23.
- 1740 The sect of the Methodists first appears in England.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

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- 1743 Battle of Dettingen, won by the Engl. and allies in favour of the Q. of Hungary.
- 1744 War declared against France. Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world.
- 1745 The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy.
- The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the Duke of Cumberland; at Culloden, April 16th 1746.
- 1746 British Linen Company erected.
- 1748 The peace of Aix la Chapelle, by which a restitution of all places taken during the war was made on all sides.
- 1749 The interest on the British funds reduced to three per cent.
- British herring fishery incorporated.
- 1751 Frederic, Prince of Wales, father to his present Majesty, died.
- Antiquarian society at London incorporated.
- 1752 Journals of the House of Commons first ordered to be printed.
- The new stile introduced into Great Britain, the 3d of September being counted the 14th.
- 1753 The British Museum erected at Montague-house.
- Society of arts, manufactures, and commerce, instituted at London.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake.
- 1756 146 Englishmen are confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the East Indies, by order of the Nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
- Marine Society established at London.
- 1757 Damien attempted to assassinate the French king.
- 1759 General Wolfe killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the English.
- Academy of painting established at Glasgow.
- 1760 King George II. dies October 25th, in the 77th year of his age, and is succeeded by his present majesty, who, on the 22d of September 1761, married the princess Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Streliz.
- Black-Friars bridge, consisting of nine arches, begun; finished in 1770, at the expence of 152,840 l. to be discharged by a toll.
- 1762 War declared against Spain.
- Peter III. Emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.
- American Philosophical Society established at Philadelphia.
- George Augustus Frederic, prince of Wales, born August 12.
- 1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10th, which confirms to Great Britain the extensive provinces of Canada, East and West Florida, and part of Louisiana, in North America; also the islands of Grenada, St Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the West Indies.
- Harrison's time-keeper for discovering the longitude invented.
- 1764 The parliament granted 10,000 l. to Mr Harrison, for his discovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
- 1765 His majesty's royal charter passed for incorporating the Society of Artists.
- 1768 Academy of painting established at London.
- The Turks imprison the Russ. ambassador, and declare war against that empire.
- 1770 Canal between Forth and Clyde begun; finished in 1776.
- 1771 Dr Solander, and Mr Banks, in his majesty's ship the Endeavour, Lieutenant Cooke, return from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries in the South Seas.
- 1772 The King of Sweden changes the constitution from aristocracy to a limited monarchy.
- The Pretender marries a princess of Germany, grand daughter of Thomas, late Earl of Aylesbury.
- The Emperor of Germany, Empress of Russia, and the King of Prussia, strip the King of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
- 1773 Captain Phipps is sent to explore the North Pole, but having made 81 degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to discover a passage in that quarter proves fruitless.
- The Jesuits expelled from the Pope's dominions.
- The English East-India Company having, by conquest or treaty, acquired the extensive provinces of Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their servants abroad, upon which government interferes, and sends out judges, &c. for the better administration of justice.

- 1773 The wars between the Russians and Turks prove disgraceful to the latter, who lose the islands in the Archipelago, and by sea are every where unsuccessful.
- 1774 Peace is proclaimed between the Russians and Turks.
- The British parliament having passed an act, laying a duty of three-pence per pound upon all teas imported into America, the Colonists, considering this as a grievance, deny the right of the British parliament to tax them.
- 1775 The American Colonies send deputies to Philadelphia, who assume the title of *The Congress of the Thirteen United Provinces*, and all the powers of government.
- 1776 The Congress declare the *United States of America* independent of the crown and parliament of Great Britain, 4th of July, in Philadelphia.
- 1777 Lieut. Gen. Burgoyne's convention and surrender of his army at Saratoga, in Canada, to the Provincial army, under the command of Gen. Gates and Arnold, 17th of October.
- 1778 Toleration of Popery in England, by act of Parliament.
- Attempt to introduce the toleration in Scotland.
- 1780 A free trade granted to Ireland by the British Parliament.
- American independence first celebrated at Philadelphia, 4th of July.
- Charlestown taken from the Americans, 12th May.
- A signal victory obtained by Lord Cornwallis over the American army, commanded by General Gates, 16th of August.
- Declaration of hostilities against Holland, published 20th December.
- 1781 St Eustatius taken from the Dutch.

MEN of LEARNING and GENIUS.

Ref. Chr.

- 1491 **AARON**, the first Jewish high priest.
- 1451 Moses, the Jewish legislator and prophet, born.
- 907 Homer, the first prophane writer and Greek poet, flourished. *Pope.*
- Hesiod, the Greek poet, supposed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*
- 384 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
- 240 Bularchus, the first who introduced different colours in the same picture.
- 600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, fl. *Fawkes.*
- 358 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
- 356 Esop, the first Greek fabulist. *Croxal.*
- 348 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer.
- 497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece. *Rowe.*
- 495 Corinna, a Theban lady, gained the prize for Lyric Poetry, tho' disputed by Pindar. Her beauty, it is said, made the judges partial.
- 480 Agathaseus, a painter of Samos, the first who made use of the perspective in theatrical decorations.
- 474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes, Addison.*
- 456 Eschylus, the first Greek tragic poet.
- 435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *West.*
- 413 Herodotus, of Greece, the first writer of prophane history. *Littlebury.*
- 407 Aristophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White.*
- Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodbull.*
- 406 Sophocles, ditto. *Franklin.*
- Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, fl.
- 405 Cebes of Thebes, a celebrated Socratic philosopher, author of the Fable of Cebes, an allegory.
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece. *Byss.*
- 391 Thucydides, the Greek historian. *Smith, Hobbes.*
- 361 Hippocrates, the Greek physician. *Clifton.*
- Hippocrates of Cos, the father of physic.—Lived 104 years.
- Democritus, the Greek philosopher.
- 359 Xenophon, ditto, and historian. *Smith, Spelman, Ashby.*
- 348 Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*
- 336 Isocrates, the Greek orator. *Dimsdale.*
- 335 Pausias of Sicyon, inventor of encaustic painting.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

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Bef. C.

- 332 Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Plato. *Hobbes.*
- 313 Demosthenes, the Athenian orator, poisoned himself. *Leland.*
- 288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle. *Budgel.*
- 285 Theocritus, the first Greek pastoral poet. *fl. Fawkes.*
- 277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician. *fl. R. Simpsn.*
- 270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece. *Digby.*
- 264 Xenon, founder of the Stoic philosophy in ditto.
- 244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet.
- 208 Archimedes, the Greek Geometrician.
- 184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Tbarnton.*
- 159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.*
- 155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the stoic philosopher.
- 129 Hipparchus, a celebrated astronomer, first took a catalogue of the stars.
- 124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian. *Hampton.*
- 34 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*
- 44 Julius Cesar, the Roman historian and commentator, killed. *Duncan, Bladen.*
- Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, *fl. Booth.*
- Vitruvius, the Roman architect. *fl.*
- 43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death. *Guthrie, Melmoth.*
- Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, *fl. Rowe.*
- 34 Sallust, the Roman historian. *Gordon, Rose.*
- 30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Roman historian, *fl. Spelman.*
- 19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden, Warton, Lauderdale.*
- 11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Grainger, Dori.*
- 8 Horace, the Roman lyric and satiric poet. *Francis.*
- Mecenas, the celebrated Roman patron of learned men.

Af. Chr.

- 4 Annius Pollis, founder of the first public library at Rome.
- 17 Cornel. Celsus, a most celebrated Latin Physician, styled the Latin Hippocrates.
- Livy, the Roman historian. *Hay.*
- 19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth.*
- 23 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
- 33 Phedrus, the Roman fabulist. *Stirling.*
- 45 Paterculus, the Roman historian, *fl. Newcome.*
- 64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman, historian of Alexander the Great, *fl. Digby.*
- Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Esrange.*
- 65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. *Rowe.*
- 79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural historian. *Holland.*
- 93 Josephus, the Jewish historian. *Whiston.*
- 94 Epictetus, the Greek stoic philosopher, *fl. Mrs Carter.*
- 95 Quintillian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.*
- 96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*
- 98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, *fl. Clarke.*
- 99 Tacitus, the Roman historian. *Gordon.*
- 104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*
- Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
- 116 Pliny the younger, historical letters. *Melmoth, Orrery.*
- 117 Suetonius, the Roman historian. *Hogbes.*
- 119 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer and moralist. *Dryden, Longbome.*
- 128 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet. *Dryden.*
- 140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, *fl.*
- 146 Artemidorus, author of a famous treatise on dreams.
- 110 Justin, the Roman historian, *fl. Turnbul, Brown.*
- 161 Arrian, the Roman historian and philosopher, *fl. Root.*
- 167 Justin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles.
- 177 Athenagoras, the first philosopher who wrote in defence of Christianity.
- 180 Lucian the Roman philologer. *Dimsdale, Dryden.*
- Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman emperor and philosopher. *Elphinstone.*
- 193 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician.
- 200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, *fl.*
- 229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, *fl.*
- 254 Origen, a Christian father of Alexandria.
- Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman historian, *fl. Hart.*
- 258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom. *Marshall.*
- 273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*

- 320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
 336 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians.
 341 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer. *Hammer.*
 379 Basil, bishop of Cefarea.
 389 Gregory Nazianzen bishop of Constantinople.
 397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.
 400 Euclid, of Megara, the celebrated mathematician.
 407 Chrysostom, the famous preaching bishop of Constantinople.
 415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
 420 Jerome, of Dalmatia, a very learned monk.
 428 Eutropius, the Roman historian. *Clarke.*
 430 Augustine, the famed bishop of Hippo, in Africa.
 524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher. *Bellamy, Preston.*
 529 Procopius, of Cefarea, the Roman historian. *Holcroft.*
 670 Callinicus, of Heliopolis, inventor of the Greek fire, or, as it has been since called, the *Wild fire*.
 735 Bede, a priest of Northumberland; history of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
 800 Haroun Alraschid, caliph of Bagdat; an eminent patron of the sciences.
 901 King Alfred; history, philosophy, and poetry.
 986 Avicenna, a celebrated Arabian physician.
 1079 Peter Abelard, a celebrated divine, but chiefly famous for his amour with Eloise, and his letters to her.
 1117 Anna Commena, daughter of the Emperor of Constantinople, a celebrated Greek historian.
 Crichton, surnamed the Admirable.
 1184 William, archbishop of Tyre, first historian of the Crusades.
 1256 Gregory Abulferagius, an Armenian physician and historian, fl.
 1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St Albans; history of England.
 1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy.
 1308 John Fordun, a priest of Merns-shire; history of Scotland.
 1340 Abulfeda, an Arabian prince, a celebrated historian and geographer.
 1398 Theodore Gaza, of Thessalonica, one of the restorers of learning in Europe.
 1400 Geoffrey Chaucer, London, the father of English poetry.
 1402 Sir John Gower, Wales, the poet.
 1460 Dr Faustus, one of the earliest printers, remarkable for his supposed league with the devil.
 1491 Ignatius Loyola, founder of the Jesuits.
 1469 Cardinal Cajetan, a celebrated Italian commentator upon Aristotle, and translator of the Bible.
 1474 Lavis Ariosto, the celebrated Italian poet.
 1483 Martin Luther, the first reformer.
 1497 Melanthon, one of the first reformers, and assistant to Luther.
 1509 John Calvin, the celebrated reformer.
 1528 Anutius Foesius, a celebrated commentator on Hippocrates.
 1542 Cardinal Bellarmine, a celebrated Italian writer on theology.
 1549 Michael Savaedra Cervantes, a Spanish novelist, author of Don Quixotte.
 1551 Martin Bucer, one of the first reformers.
 1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
 1559 Isaac Casaubon, of Geneva, a most celebrated critic.
 1570 Quevedo, an excellent Spanish poet and satyrical.
 1572 Reverend John Knox, the Scots reformer; history of the church of Scotland.
 1575 Jacob Behmen, the celebrated German enthusiast.
 1577 Norius, a celebrated Spanish mathematician, inventor of a new method of marking the degrees and minutes on quadrants.
 1580 Daniel Heinsius of Ghent, a celebrated critic.
 1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; history of Scotland, psalms of David, &c.
 1590 Rinuccini, an Italian, inventor of operas.
 1594 Galileo, the famous Italian astronomer.
 1595 The Elzevirs, a family of celebrated Dutch printers, at Amsterd. and Leyd. fl.
 1596 Des Cartes, the celebrated French mathematician and philosopher.
 1598 Edmund Spenser, London; fairy queen, and other poems.
 1602 Otto Guericke, a Prussian, inventor of the air pump.
 1605 John Jewel, bishop of Salisbury; apologist against popery.
 1607 John Petitot, of Geneva, inventor of enamel painting.
 Dr John Raynolds, a most learned convert from popery, and a Puritan.

- 1608 Alphonso Borelli, a celebrated natural philosopher and mathematician of Italy.
- 1615 Beaumont and Fletcher; 25 plays; and 53 dramatic pieces.
- 1616 William Shakespeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
- Antonieta Bourignon, the famous French enthusiast.
- 1617 Sir Walter Raleigh, discoverer of Virginia, and historian.
- 1620 Aëlius, discoverer of the lacteal veins.
- 1623 Renaudot, author of the first French news-paper.
- Blaise Pascal, a celebrated French author.
- 1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon; London; natural philosophy and literature in general.
- 1629 John Buxorff, father and son, eminent for their skill in the Hebrew language.
- Chris. Huygens, a celebrated Danish mathematician, the inventor of pendulums.
- 1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
- Pasquier Quesnel, chief of the sect of Jansenists.
- 1637 Sevammerdam, an excellent Dutch naturalist and anatomist.
- 1638 Ben Jonson, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
- 1648 Elizabeth Sophia Cheron, a French lady, celebrated for her skill in painting, music, poetry, and the learned languages.
- 1650 Zacharus Pasqualigius, of Verona, wrote a moral treatise recommending the castration of infants.
- 1651 Madam Dacier, a French lady, eminent for her skill in the Greek and Latin languages.
- 1654 John Selden, Suffolk; antiquities and laws.
- 1655 James Usher, archbishop and primate of Ireland; annals of the Old and New Testament, &c.
- 1656 Joseph Hall, bishop of Norwich; contemplations, meditations, letters, &c.
- Bernard de Fontenelle, a celebrated French poet. Lived 100 years.
- 1661 Brian Walton, bishop of Chester; who, along with Edmund Castell, John Lightfoot, and others, published the most perfect polyglot Bible.
- 1662 Robert Sanderfon, bishop of Lincoln; a famed casuist on obligations of conscience, oaths, &c.
- 1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.
- 1674 John Milton, London; paradise lost, regained, and other poems.
- Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, Wiltshire; history of the civil wars in England.
- 1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.
- 1677 Sir Dr Thomas Manton; practical works, 5 vols. folio.
- Rev. Dr Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics, and sermons.
- 1679 Matthew Poole, a most learned critic, and commentator on the Bible.
- Dr Thomas Goodwin; works, 5 vols. folio.
- 1680 Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.
- 1683 Reaumur, a most celebrated French naturalist and philosopher.
- 1684 John Astruc, a celebrated French physician.
- 1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
- 1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, speeches, letters, &c.
- 1689 Dr Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; history of physic.
- 1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; eleven tragedies.
- Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; apology for the quakers.
- 1691 Honourable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philosophy.
- Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee; antiquities and laws of Scotland.
- Richard Baxter, a celebrated disputant, and writer of many practical works, 4 vols. folio.
- 1692 Edward Pocock, professor of oriental languages at Oxford.
- 1694 John Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 sermons.
- 1699 Edward Stillingfleet, bishop of Worcester; works, six vols. folio, and Dr William Bates.
- 1701 John Dryden, Northamptonshire; 27 tragedies and comedies, satiric poems, and translation of Virgil.
- 1704 John Locke, Somersetshire; philosophy, government, and comment. on the scriptures.
- 1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; 8 comedies.
- 1711 William Asheton, first proposer of a plan to provide for clergymen's widows.
- 1713 Ant. Ash. Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury; Characteristics.
- 1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, bishop of Salisbury; 39 articles, history, &c.
- Mat. Henry, author of a large commentary on the Bible, and practical works.
- 1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonshire; 7 tragedies, translation of Lucan's Pharsalia.
- 1719, Reverend John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; mathematics and astronomy.

- 1719 Joseph Addison, Wiltshire; Spectator, Guardian, poems, and politics.
Dr John Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics and astronomy.
- 1721 Matthew Prior, London; poems and politics.
- 1727 Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire; mathematics, geometry, astronomy, and optics.
- 1729 Rev. Dr Samuel Clark, Norwich; mathematics, sermons, and paraph. on the Evangel.
Abel Boyer, author of an esteemed French dictionary.
Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; 4 comedies, and papers in Tatler, &c.
William Congreve, Staffordshire; 7 dramatic pieces.
- 1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and 11 dramatic pieces.
- 1733 Corelli, the famous Italian musician.
- 1734 Dr John Arbuthnot, Mearns-shire; medicine, coins, and politics.
- 1742 Dr Edmund Halley; natural philosophy, astronomy, navigation.
- 1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, and translation of Homer.
- 1745 Reverend Dr Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.
- 1746 Colin MacLaurin, Argyleshire; algebra, and view of Newton's philosophy.
- 1748 James Thomson, Roxburghshire; seasons, and other poems, 5 tragedies.
Reverend Dr Isaac Watts, Southampton; psalms, hymns, sermons, &c.
Dr Francis Hutcheson, Ayrshire; system of moral philosophy, &c.
- 1750 Reverend Dr Conyers Middleton, Yorkshire; life of Cicero, &c.
Dr Philip Doddridge, of Northampton; commentary on the New Testament, and many practical works.
- 1751 Henry St John, Lord Bolingbroke, Surry; philos. metaphysics, and politics.
Dr Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the human body.
- 1754 Dr Rich. Mead, Lond.; on poisons, plague, small-pox, medicine, and precepts.
- 1757 Colley Cibber, London; 25 tragedies and comedies.
- 1758 James Hervey; contemplations, Theron and Aspasio, &c.
- 1761 Thomas Sherlock, bishop of London; 69 sermons, &c.
Benjamin Hoadly, B. of Winchester; sermons and controversies.
Samuel Richardson, London; Grandison, Clarissa, and Pamela.
Reverend Dr John Leland, Lancashire; answer to Deistical writers.
- 1765 Reverend Dr Edward Young; night thoughts, and other poems, 3 tragedies.
Robert Simson, Glasgow; comic sections, Euclid, and Apollonius.
- 1768 Rev. Laur. Sterne; 45 sermons, sentimental journey, and Tristram Shandy.
- 1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnshire; harmonics and optics.
George Whitefield, a most popular preacher.
- 1770 Reverend Dr Jortin; life of Erasmus, ecclesiastical history, and sermons.
Dr Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonshire; hist. of England, novels and translations.
- 1771 Thomas Grey, Cambridge, professor of modern history; poems.
- 1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield; letters.
George Lord Lyttelton, Worcestershire; history of England.
- 1774 Oliver Goldsmith; poems, history of England, animated nature, &c.
Zachary Pearce, bishop of Rochester; annotations on the New Testament.
- 1775 Dr John Hawkesworth; essays, translations, &c.
- 1776 David Hume, Merse; history of England, essays.
James Ferguson, Aberdeenshire; astronomy.
- 1780 Captain Cook, the famous circumnavigator; voyages.

N. B. By the Dates is implied the Time when the above Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the age which they flourished in is signified by A. The Names in Italics are those who have given the best English Translations, exclusive of School-Books.

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